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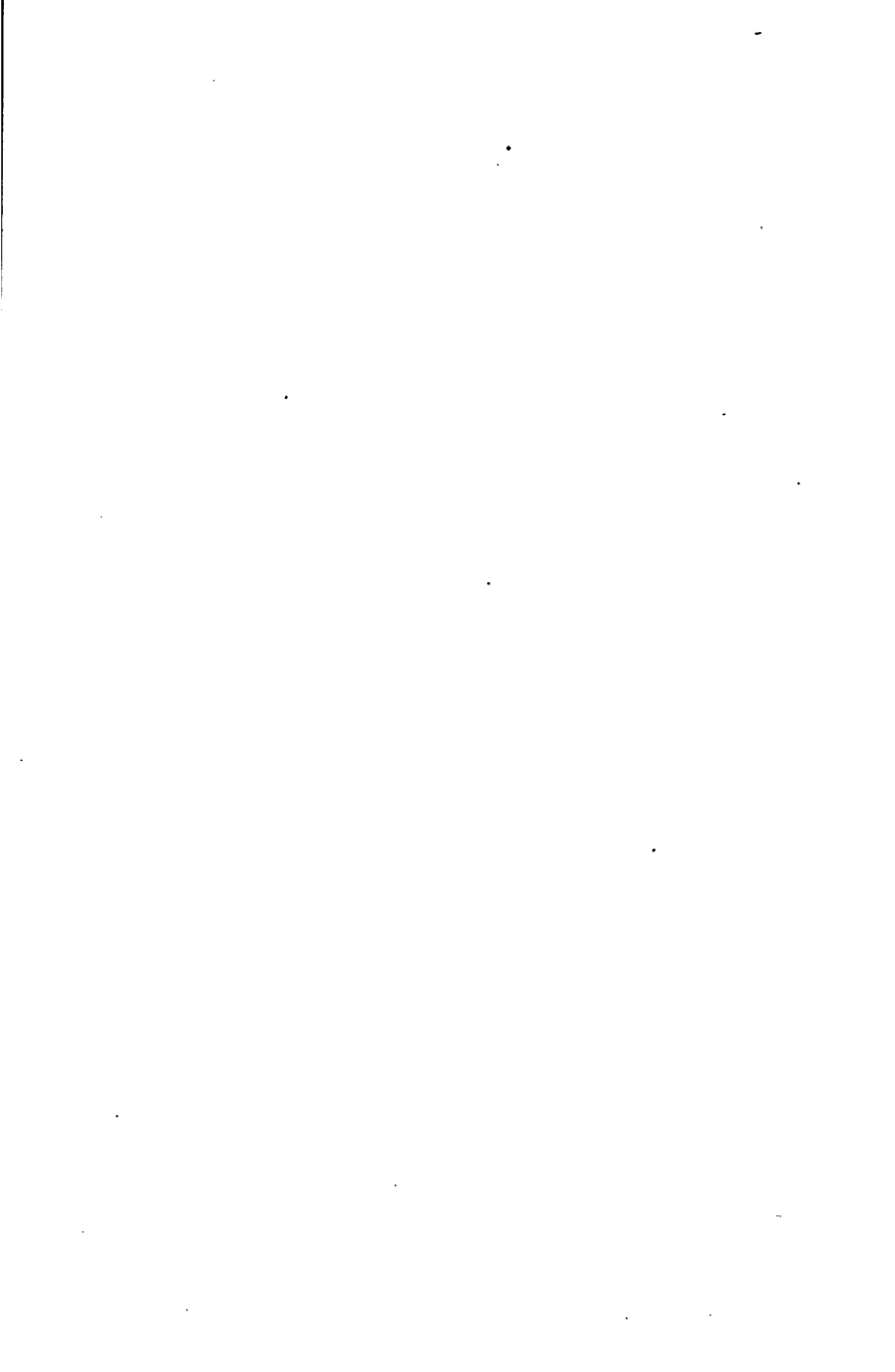
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July 18<sup>th</sup> 1871  
J. R. Wakefield  
20 Beyleton Fl.  
Boston,  
Mass.





A  
LATIN GRAMMAR

FOUNDED ON COMPARATIVE GRAMMAR

BY

J. H. ALLEN AND J. B. GREENOUGH

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REVISED EDITION

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BOSTON  
GINN AND HEATH

1881

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# PREFACE

## TO THE REVISED EDITION.

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THE editors have taken advantage of the re-casting of the plates to make some improvements in the present edition, which have grown upon their hands, until in fact a thorough revision of the book has been made.

The principal changes are the following: 1. The matter of each part has been cast in chapters, with sub-divisions by numbered paragraphs, the former sections being indicated in the margin. 2. A very considerable expansion has been given to several portions, especially to those on Phonetic Changes and the Formation of Words; inflectional forms have been more fully exhibited, and sections have been added on the syntax of Pronouns and Particles. 3. Strictly philological matter, not intended for class use, has been put in the form of marginal notes. 4. The several topics of the Syntax are introduced by brief prefatory notes, suggesting what we consider to be the true theory of the constructions: these are not designed for class use, and are not included in the numbered sections. 5. Some important additions and illustrations have been given in the Prosody. The substance of the book remains as before. The form of expression, however, has been carefully revised; and a few sections have been transferred to a different connection, such changes being noted in the margin.

The proof-sheets have been submitted to several experienced teachers, who have generously aided us by their criticism, and have contributed many valuable practicable suggestions. The editors have pleasure in acknowledging also their special indebtedness to Professor CASKIE HARRISON, of the University of the South, Sewanee, Tennessee, whose correspondence has made a very full running commentary extending over the greater portion of the book, including all the Syntax, with copious discussion of numerous incidental topics. His notes have been of the greatest service to them ; have sometimes modified their views and constantly supplemented them, have urged important points upon their attention, and have not seldom suggested valuable improvements through the very antagonism of opposing doctrine. Material less easy to specify in detail, but not less valuable or welcome, has been received from Professor M. W. HUMPHREYS, of Nashville, from the Principals of the academies at Andover, Exeter, and Quincy, and from others, to whom cordial thanks are due for the interest they have testified in the work.

CAMBRIDGE, September 25, 1877.

## NOTE.

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FOR the convenience of those who may wish to follow out special lines of study in general or comparative grammar, or to consult original sources on the history and development of the Latin, a list of works including the best and most recent authorities is here subjoined : —

**BOPP** : *Vergleichende Grammatik des Sanskrit, etc.* [Indo-European languages]. 4 vols. 3d Ed. Berlin, 1868–70.

The original standard work on Comparative Forms. Later researches have corrected some erroneous details. English translation (poor), London : 1862. The best form is a French translation, with Notes and Introductions by Michel Bréal. Paris : 1866.

**CORSSEN** : *Aussprache, Vokalismus und Betonung der Lateinischen Sprache*, 2 vols. 2d ed. Leipzig, 1868.

The greatest work on Latin *alone*, treating the language in reference to its own individual development, particularly as to the sounds (*Lautlehre*). In the comparative portion, it needs the correction of other investigators.

**CURTIUS, G.** : *Grundzüge der Griechischen Etymologie*. 3d Ed. Leipsic : 1869.

Treats of Latin only by comparison ; but is one of the most valuable works on the general subject.

——— *Erläuterungen zu meiner Griechischen Schul-grammatik*. 2d Ed. Prag. 1870. English translation ("Elucidations"), London : 1870.

Notes giving in connection with the Greek Grammar the simplest view of the doctrine of forms.

——— *Das Griechische Verbum*.

**DELBRÜCK** : *Das Conjunctiv und Optativ, im Sanskrit und Griechischen*. Halle : 1871.

Origin of the Moods treated scientifically ; should be read in connection with a notice in N. A. Review, Oct. 1871, and "Analysis of the Latin Subjunctive," by J. B. Greenough, Cambridge, 1870.

——— *Ablativ, Localis, Instrumentalis im indischen, etc.* Berlin : 1867.

Origin of the various Ablative constructions.

**ELLIS, A. J.** : *Practical Hints on the Quantitative Pronunciation of Latin*. London (MacMillan) : 1874.

**FERRAR** : *Comparative Grammar of Sanskrit, Greek, and Latin*. London : 1869. Vol. I., including as far as Pronouns. The work was left unfinished at the author's death.

A convenient hand-book in English.

**FICK** : *Vergleichendes Wörterbuch der Indo-Germanischen Sprachen*. Göttingen : 1870.

A Dictionary of Roots and Words supposed to have existed in the Indo-European tongue, with the corresponding words and derivatives in the various lan-

guages. It can be used without a knowledge of German. No such book, however, is safe to use without careful study of the laws of consonant and vowel changes.

HADLEY, JAMES: *Essays, Philological and Critical*. New York (Holt & Williams): 1873.

HOFFMAN: *Die Construction der Lateinischen Zeitpartikeln*. Vienna: 1860 (Pamphlet).

KUHN: See *Zeitschrift*.

LÜBBERT: *Die Syntax von Quom*. Breslau: 1870.

NEUE: *Formenlehre der Lateinischen Sprache*. 2d Ed. Stuttgart: 1866.  
Storehouse of all Latin forms, 1200 pages, containing the result of late textual criticism. The standard work.

PAPILLON: *A Manual of Comparative Philology, as applied to the Illustration of Greek and Latin Inflections*. Oxford: 1876.

Behind the time, but a convenient synopsis of the doctrine of Forms.

PEILE: *Latin and Greek Etymology*. 2d Ed. Macmillan: London and Cambridge, 1872.

— *Philology* (pp. 164). New York (Appleton): 1877.

One of the series of the "Literature Primers" edited by J. R. Green. A very useful manual to those desiring a general acquaintance with the subject.

ROBY: *A Grammar of the Latin Language, from Plautus to Suetonius*. Macmillan: London and New York: Vol. I. 1871; Vol. II. 1873.

A thorough treatment of Latin Etymology on the principles of comparative grammar. Some errors have been pointed out in the N. A. Review, Jan. 1872.

SCHLEICHER: *Compendium der Vergleichenden Grammatik der Indo-Germanischen Sprachen*. 2d Ed. Weimar, 1866.

SCHWEIZER-SIDLER: *Elementar- und Formenlehre der Lateinischen Sprache, für Schulen*. Halle: 1869.

The best summary of the results of comparative grammar as applied to Latin in short compass (137 pages).

VANICEK: *Etymologisches Wörterbuch der Lateinischen Sprache*. Leipzig: 1874.

Suggestive, but to be used with caution.

WESTPHAL: *Metrik der Griechen*. 2d Ed. 1867. 2 vols.

The great authority on the metrical systems of the ancients, with full literary and musical illustration. A convenient summary, with some modifications, will be found in SCHMIDT's *Rhythmik und Metrik*, now in course of translation by Prof. J. W. WHITE.

WILLIAMS: *A Practical Grammar of the Sanskrit Language*. 3d Ed. Oxford: 1864.

A very convenient Sanskrit grammar, without some knowledge of which it is difficult to pursue the study of comparative grammar to advantage.

ZEITSCHRIFT *für vergleichende Sprachforschung*. Edited by Dr. A. KUHN. Vols. I. to XXV. Berlin, 1851-1876, and still continued.

The best essays on all disputed points of comparative Philology. Indispensable to correct theories of individual investigators. Each volume has an index; and there is also a general index to the first ten volumes.

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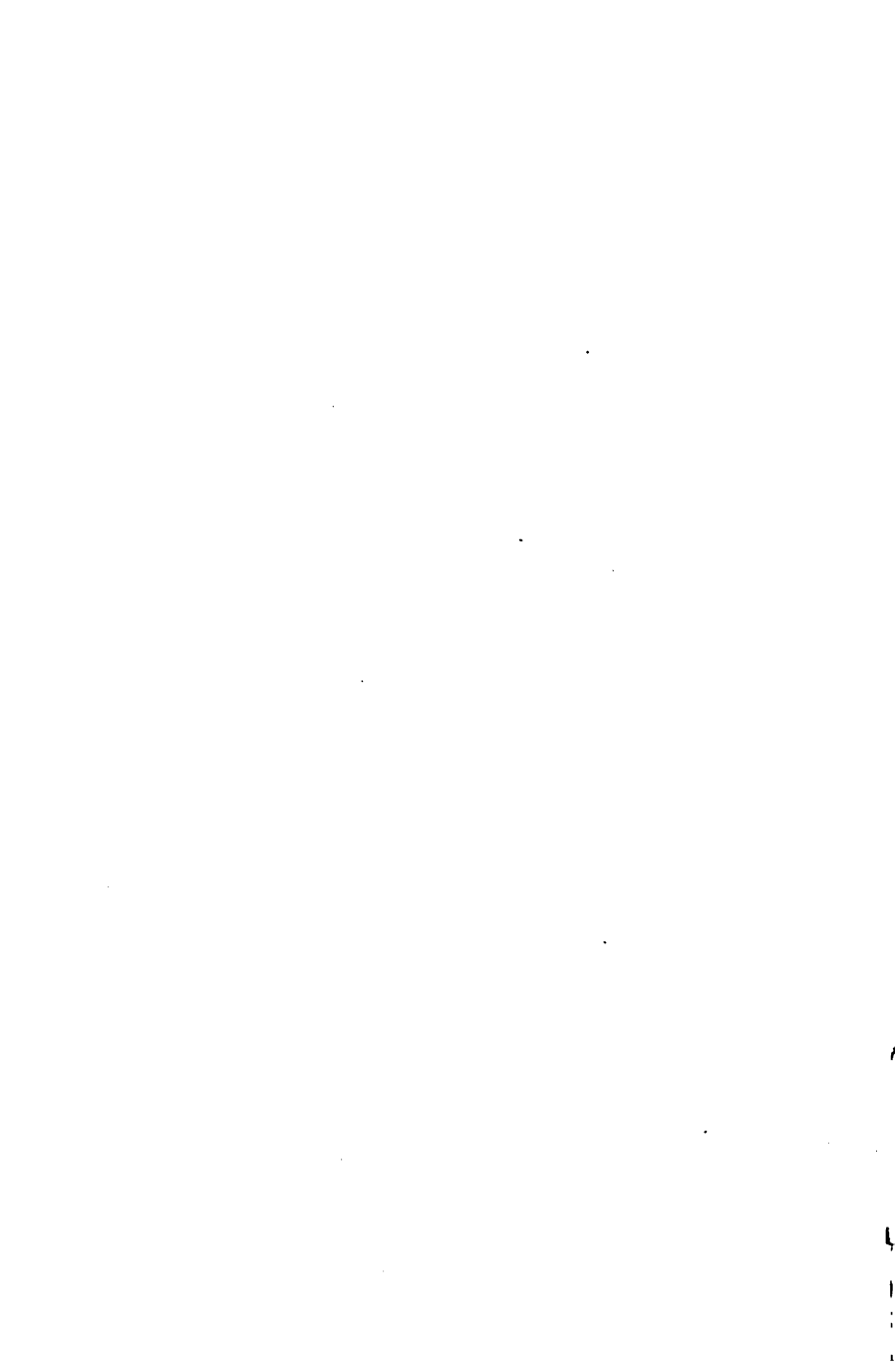
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# PART FIRST.

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## FORMS OF WORDS (ETYMOLOGY).

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### Chapter I.—*Letters and Sounds.*

#### Alphabet.

NOTE.—The Latin Alphabet, as usually written, is the same as the English, except that it has no W. It consists, strictly, of but twenty-three letters, J and V being used as the *consonant* forms of I and U (see 4, below<sup>1</sup>). Cicero (N. D. ii. 37) reckons only twenty-one letters; Y and Z being added after his time, in words derived from the Greek.

#### Classification of the Letters.

1. The VOWELS (*litteræ vocales*) are A, E, I, O, U, Y. The combinations AE (Æ), AU, EI, EU, OE (Œ), UI, are called Diphthongs. In early Latin, AI, OI, and OU are also found as diphthongs.

NOTE.—The primitive vowel-sound may be assumed to be A, as in *father*. Starting with this, and gradually contracting the *palate*, we form in succession the sound of E (ā) and I (ee), leading to the semi-vowel J (y). By contracting the *lips*, we in like manner form the sound of O and U (oo), leading to the semi-vowel V (w). By contracting *both palate and lips*, we form the French sound of U,—in Greek v, and in Latin v. This, which is called the Vowel-Scale, is of great service in tracing the modifications of vowel-sounds. It may be represented thus:—

Open		A	
Medial	E		O
Close	I	Y	U

The Aspirate (or *breathing*) H follows in inflection the rule of palatals; and was originally, in many words, a harsh guttural (κη), like the Greek χ or the Spanish j. Its later sound was very slight, and in most languages derived from Latin has quite disappeared. Sometimes, as in *aheneus* (= *aëneus*), it seems to be used by modern copyists only to separate two vowels.

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<sup>1</sup> The references are to the numbered paragraphs.

2. CONSONANTS (*litteræ consonantes*) are classified according to the organ of speech with which they are spoken, as Labial (*lip*), Lingual (*tongue*), or Palatal (*palate*); and according to the mode of utterance, as Surd, Sonant, or Nasal: thus —

	SURD.	SONANT.	NASAL.
CONSONANTS { Labial	P	B	M
{ Lingual	T	D	N
{ Palatal	C, K, Q	G	N adulterinum. <sup>1</sup>

3. The letters B, C, D, G, K, P, Q, T (surd and sonants), are called Mutes; L, M, N, R, are called Liquids; F, PH, TH, H, S (surd), and V, Z (sonant), are Fricatives (Spirants), s and z being also Sibilants; X (CS) and Z (DS or SD) are Double Consonants.

4. The letters I (J) and U (V) may be used before a vowel in the same syllable, as in *iuvēnis* (*juvenis*), and are then consonants (sometimes called semi-vowels). The U in *quis*, *anguis*, *suavis*, &c., forms a compound sound with the preceding letter, and is strictly neither vowel nor consonant.

5. Vowels and Consonants are not separated by any sharp line from each other, but form a continuous scale from the most open vowel to the closest mute, as in the following Table.<sup>2</sup> The tendency of phonetic change has been from the extremes of *open vowel* and *close mute* towards the *fricatives* and *semi-vowels* in the middle.

		A (ah)		
		ǣ (hat) ȃ (aw)		
		e (eh)	o	
Sonant.	i (ee)	ü (but)	u (oo)	
	y (Eng.)	r, l	w	
	ng	n	m	
Surd.	h	s	f	
Sonant.		z	v	
Surd.	kh	th	ph	
Sonant	gh	dh	bh	
Sonant.	g	d	b	
Surd.	k	t	p	
	PALATAL.	LINGUAL.	LABIAL.	

VOWELS.

Semi-vowels.

Nasals.

Fricatives

(Spirants).

Aspirates

(lost in Latin).

Mutes.

CONSONANTS.

<sup>1</sup> Before a Palatal, as in *ink*, *thing*.

<sup>2</sup> Adapted from Professor W. D. Whitney's *Oriental and Linguistic Studies*, 2d Series, page 286.

## Early Forms.

6. In early use, *c* was not distinguished in form or sound from *g*. After the distinction was made, *C* was still used conventionally, as the initial of names (*Caius*, *Cnaeus*) beginning properly with *G*. It came, in later use, to take the place of *K*, which was retained only in abbreviations, or as the initial letter of a few words, as *Kalendae*, *Karthago*, in which it precedes *A*.

7. Till after the age of Augustus, *u* was never in good use preceded in the same syllable by *u* or *v*; but *o* was written where later custom allows *u*: as in *volt*, *servos*, *quom* (for *cum*) and *quor* (for *cur*), or *c* was regularly used for *qu* in such words as *cum* (for *quum*), *ecus* (for *equus*), *relicus* (for *reliquus*), *locuntur* (for *loquuntur*), and the like; also in *cotidie* (for *quotidie*), and a few other words.

8. At the end of a few words, — as *sed*, *apud*, *illud*, — *t* was anciently written instead of *D*. In words ending in *-s*, final *s* was often elided (sometimes with further change), as in *qualist* (*qualis est*), *plenu' fidei* (Cat. Maj. § 1).

## Phonetic Changes.

9. Letters are often changed according to general laws of inflection and derivation; or have been altered through long use, securing an easier utterance (*phonetic decay*, *euphonic change*). Thus,

10. Vowels are changed by —

a. Vowel-increase: as, *ēmo*, *ēmi*; *lēgo*, *lēgi*; *āgo*, *ēgi*; *pēdo*, *pondus*; *sōno*, *persōna*; *perfidus*, *fīdus*, *foedus*; *dūc-is*, *dūco* (compare *tell*, *told*; *fell*, *fall*; *bind*, *band*, *bound*).

b. Substitution, generally following the vowel-scale (see page 1) in the direction from *A* to *I* on one side, or to *U* on the other, but sometimes across from *O* to *E*: as, *factum*, *confectum*; *agmen*, *agminis*; *cāpio*, *incipio*; *cano*, *concino*; *lego*, *colligo*; *salio*, *exsulto*; *pello*, *pulsum*; *servos*, *servus*; *eboris*, *ebur*; *vorto*, *verto*.

c. Contraction or omission: as, *obit* (*obiit*), *cōgo* (*co-āgo*), *nīl* (*nīhil*), *dēbeo* (*de-hābeo*), *coetus* (*coitus*); — *audacter* (*audaciter*); *jurgium* (*jurigium*), *disciplina* (*discipulina*).

d. Suppression of the semi-vowel (sometimes with contraction): as, *obicit* (*objicit*), *cunctus* (*co-junctus*, i. e. *conjunctus*), *contio* (*conventio*), *rursus* (*reversus*), *amarat* (*amaverat*).



## 11. Consonant changes are made by —

a. Substitution: as of *R* for *S* between two vowels, and before *M* or *N*: as, in *eram* (root *ES*), *generis* (*genus*), *maereo* (*maestus*), *dirimo* (*dis-emo*), *diribeo* (*dis-habeo*), *veternus* (*vetustus*); — or *S* for *D* or *T*, a smoother combination: as, *casus* (*cad-tus*), *cessum* (*ced-tum*), *mansus* (*man-tus*), *passus* (*pat-tus*), *missus* (*mit-tus*), *equester* (*equet-ter*).

b. Omission: *exāmen* (*exagmen*), *caementum* (*caed-mentum*), *sēmentris* (*ses-mestris*), *lūna* (*luc-na*), *dēni* (*dec-nī*), *hōc* (abl. for *hod-ce*), *autumnus* (*auctumnus*: root *AUG*), *fulmen* (*fulg-men*), *pergo* (*per-rego*), *lis* (*stlis*), *cor* (*cord-*), *lac* (*lact-*), *pes* (*ped-*).

c. Insertion: as, *sumo*, *sumpsi*, *sumptum* (*sum-si*, *sum-tum*); *hiems*, *hiemps* (a transition sound, as in *Thompson*).

d. Transposition: as, *sterno*, *stravi* (*sterui*); *sperno*, *sprevi*; *cerno*, *crevi*; *misceo*, *mixtus* (*misc-tus*).

e. Dissimilation (to avoid repetition of a sound): as, *parilia* (from *Pales*); *meridies* (*medi-dies*).

f. Assimilation —

1. Partial: as, *scriptus* (*scrib-tus*), *actus* (*ag-tus*), *auxi* (*aug-si*), *impero* (*in-pero*), *contero* (*com-tero*), *segmentum* (*sec-mentum*), *quantus* (*quam-tus*).

2. Complete: as, *cessi* (*ced-si*), *summus* (*sup-mus*), *sella* (*sed-la*), *puella* (*puer(u)la*), *pressi* (*prem-si*).

3. Especially of the final consonant of the preposition in Compounds: as, *accedo* (*ad-cedo*), *afficio* (*ad-facio*), *occurro* (*ob-curro*), *corruo* (*com-ruo*), *effero* (*ec-fero*), *suppono* (*sub-pono*).

NOTE. — The rules for this assimilation may be given as follows: *AD* is assimilated before *c*, *g*, *p*, *t*; less regularly before *l*, *r*, *s*, and rarely before *m*; while before *f*, *n*, *q*, the form *ad* is to be preferred; — *AB* is not assimilated, but may take the form *a*, *au*, or *abs*; — in *COM* (*CON*, *CO*), *m* is retained before *b*, *p*, *m*; is assimilated before *l*, *n*, *r*; is changed to *n* before *c*, *d*, *f*, *g*, *j*, *q*, *s*, *v*; sometimes becomes *n* before *p*; is sometimes assimilated (otherwise *n*) before *l* and *r*; *com* loses the final *m* in *conecto*, *coniveo*, *conitor*, *conubium*; — *IN* usually changes *n* to *m* before *b*, *m*, *p*; before *l* the better orthography retains *n*; — *OB* and *SUB* are assimilated before *c*, *f*, *g*, *p*, and sometimes before *m*; *SUB* also before *r*; and, in early Latin, *b* of these prepositions sometimes becomes *p* before *s* or *t*. The inseparable *AMB* loses *b* before a consonant, and *m* is sometimes assimilated; — *CIRCUM* loses *m* before *i* (often); — *s* of *DIS* before a vowel becomes *r*, and before a consonant is lost or assimilated; — the *d* of *RED* and *SED* is generally lost before a consonant. In most of these cases the later editions prefer the unaltered forms throughout; but the changes given above have good authority. Others, which are corruptions of the middle ages (as *assum* for *adsum*), would better be avoided. Lexicons vary in the spelling of these combinations.

## 12. Variations of spelling occur as follows :—

*a.* Interchange of *CI* and *TI* before a vowel : as, *nuntio, nuncio; contio, concio; dicio, ditio; condicio, conditio; suspitio, suspicio*. In these cases, the former is the more approved spelling, though the latter may still be frequently found.

NOTE. — The substitution of *c* for *t* (or the converse) is an example of phonetic decay, and belongs to a later period of the language. In Italian, *s*, and in Spanish, *c*, has regularly taken the place of *t* in such combinations : as in *nazione, nacion*. The sound of *s* or of *sh* traceable in them led gradually to the adoption of this as the regular sound of *c* before *e* or *i* (*assibilation*).

*b.* Several words are written sometimes with and sometimes without an initial *H* : as, *arena* or *harena, erus* or *herus, umerus* or *humerus, amor* or *humor*. The combinations *PH, TH*, are found only in words taken from the Greek.

*c.* Many words are variously spelled in different editions : as, *adolescens, adulescens; anulus, annulus; caelum, coelum; epistola, epistula; femina, foemina; litera, littera; milia, millia; nequiquam, nequicquam, nequidquam; paulus, paullus; quicquam, quidquam; umquam, unquam; verto, vorto; volnus, vulnus*; also the gerund-forms *-endus* or *-undus*, and the superlative *-imus* or *-umus*. The old form *libet* is often used for *libet*.<sup>1</sup>

## Combinations.

13. Two words are often united in writing, and sometimes in sound. Thus—

*a.* Conjunctions or other particles are connected : as in *etenim, jamdiu, siquis, siquidem*; also a few short phrases : as, *quare, quamobrem, respublica, iusjurandum, paterfamilias*.

*b.* The verb *est, is*, is joined with the preceding word, especially in the old poets, or when the two would be united by elision : as, *homost, periculumst, ausust* (like *thou'rt, I've*).

*c.* Similar contractions are found in *vin' (visne), scin' (scisne), sis (si vis), sodes (si audes)*. So in English, *don't, won't*.<sup>2</sup>

<sup>1</sup> Many of the above variations are due to the practice of writing from dictation, or by the ear, by which most MS. copies of the classics were made, — a single reader often dictating to numerous copyists, whose spelling was often corrupt, and without authority. The tendency of the more approved editions is to restore the forms of the late Republic or early Empire (the time of Cicero or Augustus), so far as this can be determined by inscriptions, &c. The choice among the forms appears often to be arbitrary.

<sup>2</sup> Old English, *woll not*.

## Syllables.

14. In the division of syllables, a single consonant between two vowels is to be written with the latter.

a. This rule is sometimes extended to double consonants, or any combination of consonants which can be used to begin a word: as, *ho-spes*, *ma-gnus*, *di-xit*.

b. In compounds, the parts should be separated: as, *ab-est*, *ob-latus*.

c. A syllable preceded by a vowel in the same word is called pure, as *pi-us*; when preceded by a consonant, impure, as *con-stat*.

d. An initial syllable ending, or any other syllable beginning, with a vowel, is called *open*; otherwise, it is called *close*.

## Kindred Forms.

15. In English words derived from the Latin, the original letters are retained (as *ambition* from *ambitio*).<sup>1</sup> But in true English words which come from the same source as the Latin (see Appendix), the original letters are rarely represented by the same but usually by closely related letters, which regularly correspond. Sometimes a consonant lost in the Latin appears in the English word. Thus —

LATIN	ENGLISH
c, k, qu	H, WH: qui, <i>who</i> ; cos, <i>hone</i> ; carpo, <i>harvest</i> ; calo (kalendae), <i>hail</i> ; cord-, <i>heart</i> .
g	K, CH: genus, <i>kin</i> ; genu, <i>knee</i> ; gusto, <i>choose</i> .
t	TH: tu, <i>thou</i> ; tres, <i>three</i> ; tenuis, <i>thin</i> .
	T or D (rarely): stare, <i>stand</i> ; torreo, <i>dry</i> .
d	T: duo, <i>two</i> ; dens, <i>tooth</i> ; sedeo, <i>sit</i> .
p	F: pater, <i>father</i> ; pullus, <i>foal</i> ; pauci, <i>few</i> .
f (for bh)	B: fero, <i>bear</i> ; frater, <i>brother</i> .
f (for dh)	D: fores (θύρα), <i>doors</i> ; fera (θήρ), <i>deer</i> .
h	G: veho, <i>wagon</i> ; hortus, <i>garden</i> ; hostis, <i>guest</i> .
i (j); u (v)	Y; W: jugum, <i>yoke</i> ; ovis, <i>ewe</i> .
LOST:	(s)niv-, <i>snow</i> ; (h)anser, <i>goose</i> ; (s)nervo-, <i>snare</i> .

## Sounds of the Letters.

NOTE. — The pronunciation of Latin is different in different countries. Among us, it usually follows one of two ways, which may be called the *Roman* (or *Phonetic*) and the *English*.

<sup>1</sup> Many words, however, coming through the French follow French changes: as, *fashion*, *façon* (*factic*); *chivalry*, *cheval* (*caballus*); *chimney*, *cheminée* (*castrinus*).

16. By the Roman (or Phonetic) method, *every letter has always the same sound*, as follows:—

VOWELS : ā as in <i>father</i> ;	ā as in <i>idea</i> .
ē as <i>eh</i> ? (prolonged); <i>they</i> ;	ē as <i>eh</i> ? (clipped).
ī as in <i>machine</i> ;	ī as in <i>holiest</i> .
ō as in <i>holy</i> ;	ō as in <i>obey</i> .
ū as <i>oo</i> in <i>boot</i> ;	ū as <i>oo</i> in <i>foot</i> .

N.B.—Vowels marked thus, ā, ē, ī, ō, ū, are *long*; marked thus, ă, ɛ, ɪ, ɔ̄, ũ, are *short*.

A long syllable is reckoned equal to two short ones.

DIPHTHONGS : æ like *ay*<sup>1</sup>; œ like *oy*; au like *ow* in *now*.

ei as in *eight*; eu as *ew*<sup>2</sup>; ui as *we* (*od'ee*).

CONSONANTS : c and g are always hard, as in *come*, *get*.

s is always sharp, as in *sea*, *lips*.

j is like *y*; v like *w*; qu as in English.

bs is like *ps*; oh like *k*; ph like *f*.

NOTE.—In the ancient pronunciation, PH was distinguished from F by being sounded with the lips only, instead of lip and teeth. In many words (as *abietis*, *tenuis*), I and U sometimes had the consonant sound, though usually in such words reckoned as vowels. The diphthong AE was anciently sounded as above, but early in the time of the Empire acquired from popular or provincial use the long sound of E. When two consonants come together (as in *condo*, *magnus*), or a consonant is doubled (as in *annus*, *ullus*, *mitto*), care should be taken to pronounce both letters distinctly. It was doubtless this distinct pronunciation of consonants that made a syllable with a short vowel long by Position (18. d).

17. By the English method, the letters have the same sound as in English; but—

a. There are no silent letters, each word having as many syllables as there are vowels or diphthongs.

b. Final a is pronounced as in *America*; but in the monosyllables ā, dā, quā, stā, the *long* sound is sometimes given.

c. The diphthongs æ, œ, are pronounced like *e*; au like *aw*; eu like *ew*; ei and ui like *i* in *kite*; es and (in plural words) os at the end of a word as in *disease*, *morose*.

d. The consonants c and g are made soft (like *s* and *j*) before e, i, y, æ, œ, eu: ch is always hard, as in *chasm*, *chemist*.

NOTE.—The English method should be retained in the translation of Roman names, as *Julius Cæsar*; and in the quoting of familiar phrases, as *e pluribus unum*; *viva voce*; *a fortiori*; *veni, vidi, vici*, &c.

<sup>1</sup> As in the nautical *ay*, *ay*, *sir*.

<sup>2</sup> As in *few*.

## Quantity and Accent.

## 18. The following are general Rules of Quantity:—

a. A vowel before another vowel or *h* is short: as in *vīa*, *nīhil*.

b. A diphthong is long: as in *ādes*, *foedus*.

c. A syllable formed by contraction is long: as *nīl* (*nihil*).

d. A syllable in which a vowel is followed by two consonants, or a double consonant (*xx*, *zz*), is long: as in *rēctus*, *rēxit*. Before *nf* and *ns* the vowel itself becomes long: as in *infero*, *præsēns*.

e. A syllable in which a short vowel is followed by a mute with *l* or *r* is common; i.e. it may be long in verse: as in *alācris*, *latēbrae*.

N.B. — The sign *˜* indicates that a vowel is usually *long*; *˘* that it is usually *short*. But the former is also used to denote any vowel that is common.

## 19. The following are Rules of Accent:—

a. Words of two syllables are always accented on the first syllable.

b. Words of more than two syllables are accented on the Penult, if that is long: as, *amīcus*; if it is short or common, then on the Antepenult: as, *dōminus*, *lālacris*, *latēbrae*.

DEFINITION: The Penult is the last syllable but one; the Antepenult, the last but two. (For exceptions, see 40. b, 142. b.)

c. When an Enclitic is joined to a word, the accent falls on the syllable next before the enclitic, whether long or short: as, *dēd'que*, *āmārē'ue*, *tībī'ne*, *itā'que* (and so), as distinguished from *ī'tāque*, (therefore). So (according to some authorities) *ex'inde*, *ec'quando*, &c.

NOTE. — The ancients recognized three accents, *acute* (´), *grave* (`), and *circumflex* (^). Accent no doubt consisted in a change of pitch, — elevation, depression, or both combined, — and not merely in a more forcible utterance (*ictus*). But as, in all cases except in reading poetry (which was a sort of recitative), the *ictus* and elevation coincided, the matter is unimportant in Latin. Indeed, an accurate ear will distinguish the same thing in English, though much slighter than probably existed among the ancients.

The Rules of Accent given above are the only ones which are recognized in modern usage, or which it seems worth while to observe. But the *circumflex* accent, including both acute and grave, was recognized by the ancients in all long monosyllables (as *mās*, *dās*), and in a few other cases. The sign ^ is often written merely to show contraction: as, *nīl* (*nihil*), *intrārat* (*intraverat*), or to mark the *ng* a of the ablative: as, *Romā*.

## Chapter II. — Words and their Forms.

### Inflection.

20. INFLECTION is a change made in the form of a word, to show its grammatical relations.

a. Changes of inflection sometimes take place in the body of a word, or at the beginning, but oftener in its termination: as, *vōx*, a voice; *vōcis*, of a voice; *vōco*, I call; *vōcat*, he calls; *vocāvit*, he has called; *tangit*, he touches; *tetigit*, he touched.

b. Terminations of inflection had originally an independent meaning which is now obscured. They correspond nearly to the use of prepositions, auxiliaries, or personal pronouns in English: thus, in *vōcat*, the termination is equivalent to *he* or *she*; in *vōcis*, to the preposition *of*; and in *vocet* the change of vowel signifies a change of mood.

c. Changes of inflection in the body of a verb usually denote relations of tense or mood, and correspond to the use of auxiliary verbs in English: as, *frangit* (root FRAG-), *he breaks* or *is breaking*; *frēgit*, *he broke* or *has broken*; *frangat*, *let him break*.<sup>1</sup>

### Root and Stem.

21. The body of a word, to which the terminations are attached, is called the STEM.<sup>2</sup>

The Stem contains the *idea* of the word without relations; but, in general, it cannot be used without some termination to express them. Thus the stem *vōc-* denotes *voice*; with *-s* added it becomes *vōx*, a voice or the voice, as the subject or agent of an action; with *-is* it becomes *vōcis*, and signifies *of a voice*. It is in many forms so united with the termination that a comparison with other forms is necessary to determine it.

22. A primitive form, expressing the simple idea less definitely, and common also to other words, either in the same or other languages, is called a ROOT.<sup>3</sup>

<sup>1</sup> The only *proper* inflections of verbs are those of the personal endings; and the changes here referred to are strictly changes of Stem.

<sup>2</sup> The name Stem is sometimes incorrectly given to that part of a word — as *serv-* in *servus* — which is unchanged in inflection. This may, for convenience, be called the Base.

<sup>3</sup> For example, the root STA is found in the Sanskrit *tisthāmi*, Greek *ίστημι*, Latin *sistere* and *stare*, German *stehen*, and English *stand*. (See Chap. VIII.)

Thus the root of the stem *vōc-* is *voc*, which means not *to call*, or *I call*, or *calling*, but merely *call*; and cannot be used as a part of speech without terminations. With *ā* it becomes *vōcā-*, the stem of *vocāre* (to call); with *āvī-* it is the stem of *vocāvit* (he called); with *ātō-* it becomes the stem of *vocātus* (called); with *ātiōn-* it becomes the stem of *vocātiōnis* (of a calling). With its vowel lengthened it becomes the stem of *vōx* (a voice: that by which we call). This stem, again, with *ilis* added, means *belonging to a voice*; with *tila*, *a little voice*.

NOTE. — In inflected languages, words are built up from Roots, which at a very early time were used alone to express ideas, as is now done in Chinese. Roots are modified into Stems, which, by inflection, become Words. The process by which they are modified, in the various forms of derivatives and compounds, is called *Stem-building*.

23. The Stem is sometimes the same with the Root: as in *dūc-is*, *fer-t*; but is more frequently formed from the root —

1. By changing or lengthening its vowel, as in *rēg-is*, *vōc-is*;
2. By the addition or insertion of a consonant, as in *tollo*, *pango* (from *TUL*, *PAG*; here a vowel also is added: see 4);
3. By the addition of a terminal vowel, as in *fugi-s*, *fuga* (*FUG*);
4. By two or more of these methods, as in *dūci-t*;
5. By derivation and composition, following the laws of development peculiar to the language (see Chapter VIII.).

24. The terminations of inflection are variously modified by combination with the final vowel or consonant of the Stem, leading to the various forms of Declension and Conjugation (see 32<sup>1</sup>).

NOTE. — A termination beginning with a vowel is called an *open affix*; one beginning with a consonant, a *close affix*. When a close affix is joined to a consonant-stem, there is usually either a euphonic change, as *rex* for *reg-si*, or a vowel appears, as *reg-i-bus*. But, in most cases, what is called a connecting vowel really belongs to the stem, as in *voca-mus*, *regi-mus* (see p. 72. n.).

#### The Parts of Speech.

25. Words are either Nouns, Adjectives, Pronouns, Verbs, Participles, Adverbs, Prepositions, Conjunctions, or Interjections. These are called PARTS OF SPEECH.

a. Words like *Cæsar*, *consul*, *temple*, *virtue*, which are names of persons, things, or ideas, are called NOUNS. Names of persons and places are called PROPER NOUNS.

b. Words like *brave*, *loud*, *strong*, which express qualities, are called ADJECTIVES.

c. Words which indicate any person or thing, without either naming or describing, are called PRONOUNS. These include PERSONAL, as *I, thou, we, he, they*; and ADJECTIVE, as *these, those* (Demonstrative), *my, your* (Possessive), *who, which* (Relative or Interrogative).

d. Words like *build, fight, stand, be, suffer*, which express actions or conditions, are called VERBS.

e. Words like *conquering, going, gone, beaten*, which describe by means of actions or conditions, are called PARTICIPLES.

f. Words like *nobly, well, very, here, now, to-day*, which define an action or quality in manner, place, time, or the like, are called ADVERBS.

g. Words like *for, with, by, against*, which show the relation between a noun and other words in the sentence, are called PREPOSITIONS.

h. Words like *and, or, if, but, because*, which connect words or sentences together, are called CONJUNCTIONS.

i. Some words, as *where, while, till, nevertheless*, both define as adverbs and connect as conjunctions. These are called ADVERBIAL CONJUNCTIONS.

k. Words like *ah! ho! alas!* are mere exclamations, and are not strictly parts of speech, but are called INTERJECTIONS.

26. Nouns, Adjectives, Pronouns, and Participles have inflections of *declension*, to denote gender, number, and case. Verbs have inflections of *conjugation*, to denote voice, mood, tense, number, and person.

27. Those parts of speech which are not inflected are called PARTICLES: these are Adverbs, Prepositions, Conjunctions, and Interjections.

NOTE. — The term Particle is sometimes limited to such words as NUM, -NE, AN (*interrogative*), NON, NE (*negative*), SI (*conditional*), &c., which are used simply to indicate the form or construction of a sentence. Interjections are not properly to be classed among parts of speech, and differ little from inarticulate sounds. For convenience, a list is given of those in most common use, following the Conjunctions.

#### Gender.

28. The gender of Latin nouns is either *natural* or *grammatical*.

a. Natural gender is distinction as to the sex of the object denoted: as, *puer, boy; puella, girl; dōnum, gift*.



*b.* Many masculine nouns have a corresponding feminine form: *as, oervus, oerva, stag, doe; cliēns, olienta, client; victor, victrix, conqueror*. Many designations of persons (as *nauta, sailor*), usually though not necessarily male, are masculine.

*c.* Grammatical gender is a like distinction where no sex exists in the object, and is shown by the form of the adjective joined with it: *as, lapis magnus (M.), a great stone; manus mea (F.), my hand*.

*d.* A few neuter nouns are used to designate persons as belonging to a class: *as, mancipium tuum, your slave*. Names of classes or bodies of persons may be of either gender: *as, exercitus (M.), aciēs (F.), and agmen (N.), army; and the feminine operae, workmen, oōplae, troops*. Many pet names (as *Paegnium, Glycerium*) are also neuter.

NOTE. — What we call *grammatical gender* is in most cases the product of the imagination at a rude age, when language was in the course of growth. Thus a River was seen, or a Wind was felt, as a *living creature*, violent and strong, and so is masculine; a Month is a *guide* or *divider* of tasks, and so is masculine; and the fable of Atlas shows how similar living attributes were ascribed to Mountains, which, in the northern fables, are the bones of giants. Again, the Earth, or a country or city, seems the *mother* of its progeny; the Tree shelters and ripens its fruit, as a brooding bird her nest of eggs; and, to this day, a Ship is always referred to by a feminine pronoun.

Again, in the East and South, the Sun, from its fierce heat and splendor, is masculine, and its paler attendant, the Moon, feminine; while, among northern nations, the Sun (perhaps for its comforting warmth) is feminine, and the Moon (the appointer of works and days) masculine. The rules of grammatical gender only repeat and extend these early workings of the fancy.

29. Names of Male beings, Rivers, Winds, and Mountains, are *masculine*; names of Female beings, Cities, Countries, Plants, and Gems, of many Animals (especially Birds), and of most abstract Qualities, are *feminine*.

NOTE. — Most of the above may be recognized by their terminations, according to the rules of gender under the several declensions.

*a.* A few names of Rivers ending in *a*, with the Greek names *Lēthē* and *Styx*, are feminine; others are variable or uncertain.

Some names of Mountains take the gender of their termination: *as, Alpēs (F.), Sōracte (N.)*. Names of Months are properly adjectives, the masculine noun *mēnsis* being understood.

*b.* Some names of Towns and Countries are masculine, as *Sulmo, Gabii* (plur.); or neuter, as *Tarentum, Illyricum*. A few names of plants and gems follow the gender of their termination.

c. Indeclinable nouns, infinitives, terms or phrases used as nouns, and words quoted merely for their form, are neuter: as, *fas, nihil, gummi; scire tuum, triste vale; hoc ipsum diu.*

30. Many nouns may be either masculine or feminine, according to the sex of the object. These are said to be of Common Gender: as, *exsul, exile; bōs, ox or cow.*

a. If a noun signifying a thing without life may be either masculine or feminine, — as, *dies, day; finis, end,* — it is sometimes said to be of Doubtful Gender.

b. Several names of animals have a grammatical gender, independent of sex. These are called Epicene. Thus *lepus, hare,* is always masculine, and *vulpes, fox,* is always feminine. To denote a male fox we may say, *vulpes mascula;* or a female hare, *lepus femina.*

#### Number and Case.

31. Nouns, Pronouns, and Adjectives are declined in two Numbers, *singular* and *plural*; and in six Cases, *nominative, genitive, dative, accusative, vocative, ablative.*

a. The Nominative is the case of the Subject of a sentence.

b. The Genitive may generally be translated by the English Possessive, or with the preposition *OF*.

c. The Dative is the case of the Indirect Object: it may usually be translated by the preposition *TO* or *FOR*; but sometimes corresponds to the English Objective.

d. The Accusative is the case of the Direct Object: it is used with many of the Latin Prepositions.

e. The Vocative is the case of Direct Address.

f. The Ablative may usually be translated by *FROM, BY, WITH, IN, or AT.* It is also often used with prepositions.

g. All the cases, except the nominative and vocative, may be used as object-cases; and are sometimes called *OBLIQUE CASES.*

h. In names of towns and a few other words appear traces of another case (the *locative*), denoting the *PLACE WHERE.*

NOTE. — A more convenient arrangement of the cases is the following (See Note, p. 145): —

DIRECT CASES: *Nominative, Vocative, Accusative.*

INDIRECT CASES: *Genitive, Dative, Ablative.*

## Chapter III.—Declension of Nouns.

32. NOUNS are inflected in five Declensions, distinguished by the termination of the Genitive Singular, and by the final letter (characteristic) of the Stem.<sup>1</sup>

DECL.	1.	Gen. Sing.	ae	Characteristic	ā (anciently ã)
"	2.	"	ī	"	ō
"	3.	"	is	"	ī or a Consonant
"	4.	"	ūs (uis)	"	ti
"	5.	"	ēi	"	ō

a. The stem of a noun may be found, if a consonant-stem, by omitting the case-ending; if a vowel-stem, by substituting for the case-ending the characteristic vowel.

b. The Nominative of most masculine and feminine nouns (except in the first declension) is formed from the Stem by adding s.<sup>2</sup>

NOTE. — Many, however, end in o, or in the liquids, l, n, r, — the original s (sometimes with one or more letters of the stem) having been lost through phonetic decay. In some (as in *servus*) the stem-vowel is modified before the final s; and in some, as in *ager*, *pater*, a vowel is inserted in the stem.

## 33. The following are general Rules of Declension :

a. The Vocative is always the same with the Nominative, except in the singular of nouns in us of the second declension.<sup>3</sup>

b. In neuters the nominative and accusative are always alike, and in the plural end in ā.

<sup>1</sup> Declension is produced by adding terminations originally significant to different forms of stems, vowel or consonant. The various phonetic corruptions in the language have given rise to the several forms of declension; but it is probable that originally there was only one form, with perhaps a few variations. The original terminations (answering to prepositions) can no longer be determined with certainty, though some earlier forms may be known. Most of the case-endings, as given in Latin, contain also the final letter of the stem.

Adjectives are, in general, declined like nouns, and are etymologically to be classed with them. But they have several peculiarities of inflection, and will be more conveniently treated in a group by themselves (see Chapter IV.).

<sup>2</sup> The s of the nominative is the remnant of an old demonstrative sa, which is found (with modifications) in the Sanskrit *personal pronoun*, in the Greek *article*, and in the English *she*.

<sup>3</sup> In the first and second declensions the vocative ends in the (modified) stem-vowel. Most of the words likely to be used in address are of these forms; and, in practice, few other words have a vocative. It is given in the paradigms for the sake of symmetry, but may well be omitted in declining.

c. Except in some neuters, the accusative singular always ends in *m*, and the accusative plural in *a*.

d. In the last three declensions (and in a few cases in the others) the dative singular ends in *i*.

e. The dative and ablative plural are always alike.

f. The genitive plural always ends in *um*.

g. The final *i*, *o*, *u* of inflection are always *long*; the final *a* is *short*, except in the ablative singular of the first declension; the final *e* is *long* in the first and fifth declensions, *short* in the second and third.

34. The case-endings of the several declensions are the following, rare forms being given in *parenthesis*, Greek forms in *italics* :—

DECL. I.	II.	III.	IV.	V.
<i>Sing.</i>				
N. <i>ā</i> 2, <i>as, -as</i>	us, <i>um</i> , <i>eros, on, rus</i>	s (or modified Stem)	ūs, ū	ēs
G. <i>ae</i> ( <i>āi</i> ) 3s	i ( <i>ius</i> ) 3, <i>u, ei</i>	is <i>gos, ds</i>	ūs ( <i>uis</i> )	ēi ( <i>ē</i> )
D. <i>ae</i> ( <i>āi</i> )	ō ( <i>i</i> ) <i>ei, eo</i>	i	ui ( <i>ū</i> )	ēi ( <i>ē</i> )
A. <i>ain</i> 2m, 2n	um <i>on</i>	em ( <i>im</i> ) <i>in, yn, ā</i>	um, ū	em
V. <i>ā</i> 2	ō ( <i>i</i> ) <i>er</i>	(as rom.) <i>i, y</i>	ūs, ū	ēs
A. <i>ā</i> 2	ō <i>eo</i>	o ( <i>i</i> ), <i>i</i> <i>yē</i>	ū	ē
<i>Plur.</i>				
N. V. <i>ae</i>	i <i>ā</i>	ēs, a, ia	ūs, ua	ēs
G. <i>ārum</i> (um)	ōrum (um, om) <i>on</i>	um, ium <i>on</i>	uum	ōrum
D. A. <i>is</i> ( <i>ābus</i> )	is ( <i>ōbus</i> )	ius	ibus ( <i>ūbus</i> )	ēbus
A. <i>ās</i>	ōs	ēs ( <i>is</i> ), a, ia <i>ds</i>	ūs, ua	ēs

### FIRST DECLENSION.

NOTE.—The Stem of nouns of the First Declension ends in *ā*: Latin nouns have the Nominative like the stem.

35. Latin nouns of the First Declension are thus declined :—

	SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
NOMINATIVE.	stellā, <i>a</i> (or <i>the</i> ) <i>star</i> .	stellae, <i>stars</i> .
GENITIVE.	stellae, <i>cf. a star</i> .	stellārum, <i>of stars</i> .
DATIVE.	stellae, <i>to a star</i> .	stellis, <i>to stars</i> .
ACCUSATIVE.	stellam, <i>a star</i> .	stellās, <i>stars</i> .
VOCATIVE.	stellā, <i>thou star!</i>	stellae, <i>ye stars!</i>
ABLATIVE.	stellā, <i>with a star</i> .	stellis, <i>with stars</i> .

GENDER. Most nouns of the first declension are Feminine. Nearly all the exceptions are such as are masculine from their signification: as, *nauta* (sailor). Also, *Hadria* (the Adriatic), and a few family or personal names: as, *Murēna*, *Sulla*.

36. CASE-FORMS. a. The genitive singular anciently ended in *āi*, which is occasionally found in a few authors: as, *aulāi*. The same ending occurs in the dative, but only as a diphthong.

b. There is also an old genitive in *ās*, found in the word *familiās* used in certain combinations: as, *pāter* (*māter*, *filius*, *filia*) *familiās*.

c. The Locative form for the singular ends in *ae*, and for the plural in *īs*: as, *Rōmae*, at Rome; *Athēnis*, at Athens.

d. The genitive plural is sometimes found in *um* instead of *arum*, especially in compounds with *-cōla* and *-gōna*, signifying *dwelling* and *descent*: as, *caelicolum* (heavenly ones), *Trojugenum* (sons of Troy); with *amphora* and *drachma*.

e. The dative and ablative plural of *dea*, goddess, *filia*, daughter, — also, rarely, of several other words: as, *liberta*, freed-woman, *mula*, she-mule, — end in an older form *-ābus*. But, except when the two sexes (as in formulas, documents, &c.) are mentioned together, the form in *īs* is preferred in all but *dea*, *filia*.

N. B. For the corresponding forms of Adjectives, see Chap. IV.

#### Greek Nouns.

37. Greek nouns of the first declension retain traces of their Greek formation, and are thus declined:—

	<i>comet</i> (m.).	<i>laurel</i> (f.).	<i>Aeneas</i> (m.).	<i>Anchises</i> (m.).
NOM.	<i>comētēs</i> (a)	<i>daphnē</i>	<i>Aenēās</i>	<i>Anchisēs</i>
GEN.	<i>comētae</i>	<i>daphnēs</i> (ae)	<i>Aenēae</i>	<i>Anchisae</i>
DAT.	<i>comētae</i>	<i>daphnē</i> (ae)	<i>Aenēae</i>	<i>Anchisae</i>
ACC.	<i>comētēn</i> (am)	<i>daphnēn</i>	<i>Aenēān</i> (am)	<i>Anchisēn</i>
VOC.	<i>comētā</i>	<i>daphnē</i>	<i>Aenēā</i> (ā)	<i>Anchisē</i> (ā)
ABL.	<i>comētā</i> (ē)	<i>daphnē</i> (ē)	<i>Aenēā</i>	<i>Anchisē</i> (ē)

These forms are found only in the singular; the plural is regular: as, *comētae*, *arum*, &c. There are of this kind (besides proper names) about thirty-five words, several being names of plants, or names of arts: as, *mūsice*. Most have also regular Latin forms in *a*: as, *comēta*.

#### SECOND DECLENSION.

NOTE.—The Stem of nouns of the Second Declension ends in *ō* (as of *vir*, *virō-*, and of *servus*, *servō-*).<sup>1</sup> The Nominative is formed from the stem by adding *s* (in neuters *m*), the characteristic *ō* being weakened to *ū* (see 10. b).

In most nouns whose stem ends in *ro-*, the *s* is not added, but the *o* is lost, and *e* is inserted before *r*. Thus *ager* (stem *agro-*) is the same as the Greek *ἀγρός*. The exceptions are *hesperus*, *humerus*, *juniŕerus*, *mōrus*, *numerus*, *uterus*, *taurus*, *vīrus*.

<sup>1</sup> This form is an original *ā*-stem, to which the *a*-stem of the first declension is the corresponding feminine.

38. Latin nouns of the Second Declension are thus declined:—

Sing.	slave (M.).	boy (M.).	field (M.).	man (M.).	war (N.).
NOM.	servūs	puēr	agēr	vīr	bellum
GEN.	servī	puerī	agrī	virī	bellī
DAT.	servō	puerō	agrō	virō	bellō
ACC.	servum	puerum	agrum	virum	bellum
VOC.	servē	puer	ager	vir	bellum
ABL.	servō	puerō	agrō	virō	bellō
<b>Plur.</b>					
NOM.	servī	puerī	agrī	virī	bellā
GEN.	servōrum	puerōrum	agrōrum	virōrum	bellōrum
DAT.	servīs	puerīs	agrīs	virīs	bellīs
ACC.	servōs	puerōs	agrōs	virōs	bellā
VOC.	servī	puerī	agrī	virī	bellā
ABL.	servīs	puerīs	agrīs	virīs	bellīs

NOTE. — The old form *os*, *om* (for *us*, *um*), is sometimes used after *u* or *v*: as, *servos*, *servom*. The case-ending *s* or *m* is sometimes omitted in inscriptions, &c., as *Cornelio*, for *Cornelius* or *Cornelium*.

39. GENDER. — Nouns ending in *us* (*os*), *er*, *ir*, are masculine; those ending in *um* (*on*) are Neuter. But —

*a.* Names of towns in *us* (*os*) are Feminine: as, *Corinthus*, Also many names of Plants and Gems, with the following: —

*arctus* (*os*), the Polar Bear; *alvus*, belly; *carbasus*, linen (plural *carbasa*, sails, N.); *colus*, distaff; *humus*, ground; *vannus*, winnowing-shovel.

*b.* The following in *us* are Neuter; their accusative, as of all neuters, is the same as the nominative: —

*pelagus*,<sup>1</sup> sea; *vīrus*, poison; *vulgus* (rarely M.), the crowd.

40. CASE-FORMS. *a.* The Locative form of this declension for the singular ends in *i*: as, *humī*, on the ground; *Corinthī*, at Corinth. For the plural, in *is*: as, *Philippīis*, at Philippī.

*b.* The genitive of nouns in *ius* or *ium* ends by earlier use with a single *i*: as, *filiī*, of a son; *ingēnī*, of genius.<sup>2</sup> The same contraction occurs with the genitive singular and the dative and ablative plural of nouns in *āius* and *ēius*: as, *Grāīs*, *Pompēi*.

<sup>1</sup> This has a Greek plural *pelagē*: *vīrus* and *vulgus* have no plural.

<sup>2</sup> The genitive in *ii* occurs twice in Virgil, and constantly in Ovid. The accent remains (as in *ingēni*) on the syllable preceding the contraction.

c. Proper names in *ius* lose *e* in the vocative, as *Vergili*; also, *filius*, *son*; *genius*, *divine guardian*. The possessive *meus*, *my*, has *mī*: as, *audi, mī fili, hear, my son*.

d. Greek names in *ius* have the vocative *īe*; and adjectives derived from proper names — as *Lacedaemonius* — also form the vocative in *īe*.

e. In the genitive plural, *um* or (after *v*) *om* is often found for *orum*, especially in poets, and in certain words of money, measure, and weight: as, *nummum, jugerum*.

f. *Deus*, *god*, has vocative *deus*; plural: nominative and vocative *dei* or *dī* (*dīi*); dative and ablative *deīs* or *dīs* (*dīsīs*). For the genitive plural *deorum*, *divum* or *divom* (from *divus*), is often used.

41. The following stems in *ōro*, in which *e* belongs to the stem, retain *e* throughout: compounds in *-fer* and *-ger*, as *lūcifer*, *lēri*, *light-bringer*; *armiger*, *-gēri*, *armor-bearer*. Also, *adulter*, *adulterer*; *gener*, *son-in-law*; *puer*, *boy*; *socer*, *father-in-law*; *vesper*, *evening*.

a. Some of these have an old nominative in *ōrus*: as, *socerus*.

b. *Vir*, *man*, has the genitive *vīri*; the adjective *satur*, *sated*, has *sattūri*; *vesper* has abl. *vespere* (loc. *vesperi*).

c. *Liber* (a name of Bacchus) has genitive *Lībēri*; so, too, the adjective *liber*, *free*, of which *liberī*, *children*, is the plural.

42. The following insert *e* in the nominative and vocative: —

ager, <i>field</i> .	coluber, <i>snake</i> .	liber, <i>book</i> .
aper, <i>boar</i> .	conger, <i>sea-eel</i> .	magister, <i>master</i> .
arbitr, <i>judge</i> .	culter, <i>knife</i> .	minister, <i>servant</i> .
auster, <i>south-wind</i> .	faber, <i>smith</i> .	oleaster, <i>wild-olive</i> .
cancer, <i>crab</i> .	fiber, <i>beaver</i> .	onager ( <i>grus</i> ), <i>wild-ass</i> .
caper, <i>goat</i> .	geometer, <i>geometer</i> .	scomber ( <i>brus</i> ), <i>mackerel</i> .

N.B. For the corresponding forms of Adjectives, see Chap. IV.

43. Greek nouns — including many names in *eus* — are declined as follows in the singular, the plural being regular: —

	<i>fable</i> (M.).	<i>mock-sun</i> (N.).	<i>Delos</i> (F.).	<i>Athos</i> (M.).	<i>Orpheus</i> (M.).
NOM.	mythos	parēlion	Dēlos	Athōs (ō)	Orpheus
GEN.	mythī	parēlii	Dēli	Athō (i)	Orpheos (ei)
DAT.	mythō	parēliō	Dēlō	Athō	Orphei
ACC.	mython	parēlion	Dēlon (um)	Athō (on)	Orpheas
VOC.	mythe	parēlion	Dēle	Athōs	Orpheu
ABL.	mythō	parēliō	Dēlō	Athō	Orpheō

a. Many names in *ēs* belonging to the Third Declension have also a genitive in *ī*, as *Thūcydiāēs*, *Thūcydīt* (compare 52).

b. Several names in *er* have also a form in *us*: as, *Teucer* or *Teucrus*. The name *Panthūs* has the vocative *Panthū*.

c. The genitive plural of certain titles takes the Greek termination *ōn*: as, *Georgicōn*.

### THIRD DECLENSION.

NOTE.— Nouns of the Third Declension are most conveniently classed according to their stems, as ending either in a Vowel (*i*), a Liquid (*l*, *n*, *r*), or a Mute. A few whose stems ends in *u* (*grūs*, *sūs*) are treated as consonant-stems. The Nominative (except of neuters and of liquid-stems) is found by adding *s* to the stem.

#### 1. — Mute-Stems.

44. Masculine or feminine nouns, whose stem ends in a Mute, form the nominative by adding *s*. If the mute is a *lingual* (*t*, *d*), it is suppressed before *s*; if it is a *palatal* (*c*, *g*), it unites with *s*, forming *x*. Neuters have for nominative the simple stem.

EXAMPLES: *op-is*, *ops*; *custōd-is*, *custōs*; *rēg-is*, *rēx*.<sup>1</sup>

45. The vowel before the final consonant of the stem is often modified:—

a. LABIALS.— Stems in *ip-* have *e* in the nominative: as, *adip-is*, *adeps*. Most stems in *cip-* are compounds of the root *CAP* (in *capio*, *take*): as, *particip-is*, *particeps*. In these the stem sometimes has the form *cup-*, as *aucup-is*, *auceps*.

b. LINGUALS.— Stems in *it-* (*M.* or *F.*) have *e* in the nominative: as, *hospit-is*, *hospes*. The neuter *capit-is* has *caput*. Neuter stems ending in two consonants, and those ending in *āt-* (Greek nouns), drop the final lingual: as, *cord-is*, *cor*; *poēmat-is*, *poēma*.

c. PALATALS.— Stems in *io-* (short *i*) have the nominative in *ex*,<sup>2</sup> and are chiefly masculine: as, *apic-is*, *apex*. Those in *īo-* (long *i*) retain *i*, and are feminine: as, *cornic-is*, *cornix*.<sup>3</sup>

<sup>1</sup> In these examples the genitive form is given to show the stem as it occurs in practice.

<sup>2</sup> With a few exceptions (see 67. e).

<sup>3</sup> In *nix*, *nivis*, the nominative contains a palatal lost in the other cases. (original stem *snig-*, compare *ningit*). *Supellex* (*ectilis*) is partly a lingual, partly



46. Nouns of this class are declined as follows:—

Sing.	<i>help</i> (F.).	<i>king</i> (M.).	<i>guide</i> (C.).	<i>soldier</i> (M.).	<i>head</i> (N.).
NOM.	[ops.] <sup>1</sup>	rēx	dux	miles	caput
GEN.	opis	rēgis	ducis	militis	capitis
DAT.	opī	rēgī	ducī	militī	capitī
ACC.	opem	rēgem	ducem	militem	caput
VOC.	ops	rēx	dux	miles	caput
ABL.	ope	rēge	duce	milite	capite
Plur.	<i>wealth.</i>				
NOM.	opēs	rēgēs	ducēs	militēs	capita
GEN.	opum	rēgum	ducum	militum	capitum
DAT.	opibus	rēgibus	ducibus	militibus	capitibus
ACC.	opēs	rēgēs	ducēs	militēs	capita
VOC.	opēs	rēgēs	ducēs	militēs	capita
ABL.	opibus	rēgibus	ducibus	militibus	capitibus

47. In like manner are declined —

<i>princeps, ipis</i> (C.), <i>chief.</i>	<i>aries, etis</i> (M.), <i>ram.</i>
<i>lapis, idis</i> (M.), <i>stone.</i>	<i>apex, apicis</i> (M.), <i>peak.</i>
<i>custōs, ōdis</i> (C.), <i>guard.</i>	<i>cornix, icis</i> (F.), <i>raven.</i>
<i>comes, itis</i> (C.), <i>companion.</i>	<i>poēma, ātis</i> (N.), <i>poem</i> (47. b).

a. Many apparent mute-stems, having the genitive plural in *ium*, are to be classed with *i*-stems (54).

b. Greek neuters (as *poēma*), with nominative singular in *a*, frequently end the dative and ablative plural in *is*, and the genitive rarely in *orum*.

### 2. — Liquid-Stems.

48. In nouns whose stem ends in a Liquid (*l, n, r*), the nominative is the same as the stem, except when modified as follows:—

a. Stems in *ōn-* (M. and F.) drop *n*: as, in *leōn-is, leo*; *legiōn-is, legio*.

b. Stems in *dīn-* or *gīn-* (mostly feminine) have *o* in the nominative: as, *virgin-is, virgo*. Other stems in *īn-* have *e*: as, *cornicin-is, cornicen* (M.); *carmin-is, carmen* (N.).

an *i*-stem. Of apparent *s*-stems in Latin, *as* (*assis*) is an *i*-stem; the original stem of *os, ossis*, is *osti-* (cf. *ōsteon* and Sanskrit *asthi*); while the others have either (1) passed into *r*-stems (changed from *s*) in most of the cases, as *honor, ōris, corpus, ōris* (see *liquid stems*); or (2) have broken down into *i*-stems, as *mōles* (cf. *molestus*), *nūbes* (Sanskrit *nabhas*), *sēdes* (cf. *ēdos*), *vīs* (*vires*), &c.

<sup>1</sup> The singular (meaning *help*) is not used in the nominative, except as the name of a divinity.

c. Stems in *tr-* have their nominative *ter*: *as, patr-is, pater*.

d. Many neuter stems in *er* and *or* have the nominative in *us*: *as, oper-is, opus; corpor-is, corpus*. A few masculine and feminine stems also have the nominative in *s* as well as *r*: *as, honor-is, honoris* (or *honor*); *arbor-is, arboris* (or *arbor*).<sup>1</sup>

e. Stems in *ll, rr* (N.) lose one of their liquids in the nominative: *as farr-is, far*; *fell-is, fel*.

49. Nouns of this class are declined as follows:—

Sing.	<i>consul</i> (M.).	<i>lion</i> (M.).	<i>maiden</i> (F.).	<i>name</i> (N.).	<i>body</i> (N.).
NOM.	cōnsul	leo	virgo	nōmen	corpus
GEN.	cōnsul <sup>s</sup>	leōn <sup>s</sup>	virgin <sup>s</sup>	nōmin <sup>s</sup>	corpor <sup>s</sup>
DAT.	cōnsul <sup>i</sup>	leōn <sup>i</sup>	virgin <sup>i</sup>	nōmin <sup>i</sup>	corpor <sup>i</sup>
ACC.	cōnsule <sup>m</sup>	leōnem	virginem	nōmen	corpus
VOC.	cōnsul	leo	virgo	nōmen	corpus
ABL.	cōnsule	leōne	virgine	nōmine	corpore
Plur.					
NOM.	cōnsulēs	leōnēs	virginēs	nōmina	corpora
GEN.	cōnsulū <sup>m</sup>	leōnū <sup>m</sup>	virginū <sup>m</sup>	nōminū <sup>m</sup>	corporū <sup>m</sup>
DAT.	cōnsulib <sup>us</sup>	leōnib <sup>us</sup>	virginib <sup>us</sup>	nōminib <sup>us</sup>	corporib <sup>us</sup>
ACC.	cōnsulēs	leōnēs	virginēs	nomina	corpora
VOC.	cōnsulēs	leōnēs	virginēs	nōmina	corpora
ABL.	cōnsulib <sup>us</sup>	leōnib <sup>us</sup>	virginib <sup>us</sup>	nōminib <sup>us</sup>	corporib <sup>us</sup>

50. In like manner are declined —

<i>pater, patris</i> (M.).	<i>father</i> .	<i>arbor</i> (ōs), <i>oris</i> (F.).	<i>tree</i> .
<i>ebur, oris</i> (N.).	<i>ivory</i> .	<i>honor</i> (ōs), <i>ōris</i> (M.).	<i>honor</i> .
<i>opus, oris</i> (N.).	<i>work</i> .	<i>aequor, oris</i> (N.).	<i>plain</i> .

The following apparent liquid-stems have the genitive plural in *ium*, and are to be classed with *i*-stems:—*imber, linter, ūter, venter*; with the monosyllables *fūr, glīs, lār, mās, mūs, [rem]*; also *vīres* (from *vīs*: see 61).

### 3. — Vowel-Stems.

51. Vowel-stems of the Third Declension end in *i* (as of *turris, turri-*; *mare, mari-*). The nominative, except in neuters, is formed by adding *s* to the stem.

a. Thirty-five nouns change *i* to *ē* in the nominative.<sup>2</sup>

<sup>1</sup> These stems originally ended in *s*. (See Note 3, page 19.)

<sup>2</sup> These are *acinēces, aedes, alces, caedes, cautes, clādes, compāges, contāges, crates, fames, fēles, fides, lābes, lues, mēles, mōles, nūbes, palumbes, prōles, propāges, pūbes, sēdes, sēpes, sordes, strāges, strues, subdōles, sudas, tūbes, torques, tudes, vītes, vehes, vepres, verres* (*aedes* has also nom. *is*).

b. The nominative of a few stems in *bri-* and *tri-* does not add *n*, but loses *i*, inserting *e* before *r*: viz., *imber*, *linter*, *ater*, *venter* (54).

c. The nominative of neuters is the same as the stem, with the change of *i-* to *ē-* (as in *mare*). But, when *i* is preceded by *al* or *ar*, the *e* is lost, as in *animal* (53. b).<sup>1</sup>

52. Nouns of this class are inflected as follows:—

Sing.	<i>thirst</i> (F.).	<i>tower</i> (F.).	<i>cloud</i> (F.).	<i>sea</i> (N.).	<i>animal</i> (N.).
NOM.	<i>sitis</i>	<i>turris</i>	<i>nūbēs</i>	<i>mare</i>	<i>animal</i>
GEN.	<i>sitis</i>	<i>turris</i>	<i>nūbis</i>	<i>maris</i>	<i>animālis</i>
DAT.	<i>siti</i>	<i>turri</i>	<i>nūbi</i>	<i>marī</i>	<i>animālī</i>
ACC.	<i>sitim</i>	<i>turrem</i> (im)	<i>nūbem</i>	<i>mare</i>	<i>animal</i>
VOC.	<i>sitis</i>	<i>turris</i>	<i>nūbēs</i>	<i>mare</i>	<i>animal</i>
ABL.	<i>siti</i>	<i>turre</i> (ī)	<i>nūbe</i>	<i>marī</i> (e)	<i>animālī</i>
<b>Plur.</b>					
NOM.		<i>turrēs</i>	<i>nūbēs</i>	<i>maria</i>	<i>animālia</i>
GEN.		<i>turrium</i>	<i>nūbium</i>	<i>marium</i>	<i>animālium</i>
DAT.		<i>turribus</i>	<i>nūbibus</i>	<i>maribus</i>	<i>animālibus</i>
ACC.		<i>turrēs</i> (is)	<i>nūbēs</i> (is)	<i>maria</i>	<i>animālia</i>
VOC.		<i>turrēs</i>	<i>nūbēs</i>	<i>maria</i>	<i>animālia</i>
ABL.		<i>turribus</i>	<i>nūbibus</i>	<i>maribus</i>	<i>animālibus</i>

53. Nouns of this class include the following:—

a. All nouns of the Third Declension having the same number of syllables in the nominative and genitive (*parisyllabic*), excepting *pater*, *māter*, *frāter*, *accipiter*. They end in the nominative in *is* or *ēs* (mostly feminine), *e* (neuter).

b. Neuters in *al* and *ar* (originally adjectives in *ālis*, *āris*), which have lost a final *e*.<sup>2</sup>

54. Many nouns with apparently consonant-stems were originally *i*-stems.<sup>3</sup> These are —

<sup>1</sup> Except *augurāle*, *collāre*, *focāle*, *mare*, *navāle*, *penetrāle*, *scutāle*, *tibiāle*; *alveāre*, *capillāre*, *cochleāre*.

<sup>2</sup> These are *animal*, *bacchānal*, *bidental*, *capital*, *cervical*, *cubital*, *lupercal*, *minūtal*, *puteal*, *quadrantal*, *toral*, *tribūnal*, *vectigal*; *calcar*, *cochlear*, *exemplar*, *lacūnar*, *laquear*, *lūcar*, *lūminar*, *lupānar*, *palear*, *pulvīnar*, *torcular*; with the plurals *dentalia*, *frontalia*, *genualia*, *rāmalia*, *sponsalia*; *altaria*, *plantaria*, *specularia*, *tālaria*.

<sup>3</sup> The *i*-declension was confused even to the Romans themselves, nor was it stable at all periods of the language, the early language having *i*-forms which afterwards disappeared. There was a tendency in nouns to lose the *i*-forms, in adjectives to gain them. The accusative form (*im*) was most thoroughly lost, next the ablative (*ī*), next the nominative (*is*); while the genitive and accusative plural (*ium*, *īs*) were retained in almost all.

1. Monosyllables with stem ending in two consonants: *as*, *urbs*, *mons* (*montis*), *nox* (*noctis*), *arx*; together with *imber*, *linter*, *ater*, *venter* (51. *b*).

2. Stems in *tāt-* (as *civitas*, *-ātis*),<sup>1</sup> or in *d* or *t* preceded by a consonant (including participles used as nouns); the monosyllables *dōs*, [*faux*], *fūr*, *glīs*, *līs*, *mās*, *mūs*, *nix*, [*rēn*], *strix*, *vis*.

3. Nouns denoting birth or abode, having stems in *āt-*, *īt-*, originally adjectives (as *Arptnās*, *ātis*), with *Penātes* and *Optimātes*.

They are thus declined:—

Sing.	city (F.).	night (F.).	age (F.).	mouse (M.).	shower (M.).
NOM.	urbis	nox	aetās	mūs	imber
GEN.	urbis	noctis	aetātis	mūris	imbris
DAT.	urbī	noctī	aetātī	mūrī	imbrī
ACC.	urbem	noctem	aetātem	mūrem	imbrem
VOC.	urbs	nox	aetās	mūs	imber
ABL.	urbē	nocte	aetāte	mūre	imbre (I)
Plur.					
NOM.	urbēs	noctēs	aetātēs	mūrēs	imbrēs
GEN.	urbium	noctium	aetātium (um)	mūrium	imbrium
DAT.	urbibus	noctibus	aetātibus	mūribus	imbribus
ACC.	urbēs (is)	noctēs (is)	aetātēs (is)	mūrēs (is)	imbrēs (is)
VOC.	urbēs	noctēs	aetātēs	mūrēs	imbrēs
ABL.	urbibus	noctibus	aetātibus	mūribus	imbribus

N.B. — The declension of these nouns in the singular differs in no respect from that of consonant-stems, and in the plural in no respect from that of vowel-stems.

55. Vowel-stems show the *i* of the stem in the following forms:—

- All have the genitive plural in *-ium* (but see 59).
- All neuters have the nom. and acc. plural in *-ia*;
- The accusative plural (M. or F.) is often written *-is*;
- The accusative singular (M. or F.) of a few ends in *-im* (56);
- The ablative singular of all neuters, and of many masculines and feminines, ends in *-ī* (see 57).

#### 4. — Case Forms.

56. The regular form of the accusative singular (M. or F.) would be *im*: as of *citīs*, *sitim*; but in most nouns this is changed to *em*.

<sup>1</sup> These, however, more commonly have the genitive plural in *um*.

a. The accusative in **im** is found exclusively —

1. In Greek nouns and names of rivers ;
2. In *būris, cucumis, rāvis, sitis, tussis, vīs* ;
3. In adverbs in **tim** (being accusative of nouns in **tis**), as *partim* ; and in *amussim*.

b. The accusative in **im** is sometimes found in *febris, restis, turris, securis, sēmentis*, and (in a few passages) in many other words.

57. The regular form of the ablative singular would be **i** : as of *sitis, siti* ; but in most nouns this is changed to **e**.

a. The ablative in **i** is found exclusively —

1. In nouns having the accusative in **im** (56) ; also *securis* ;
2. In the following adjectives used as nouns : *aequālis, annālis, aquālis, consulāris, gentilis, molāris, prīmipilāris, tribūlis* ;
3. In neuters (nominative in *e, al, ar*) : except *baccar, jubar*, and sometimes (in verse) *mare, rēte*.

b. The ablative in **i** is sometimes found —

1. In *avis, clāvis, febris, finis, ignis,<sup>1</sup> imber, nāvis, ovis, pelvis, sēmentis, strigilis, turris*.

2. In the following adjectives used as nouns : *affinis, bipennis, canālis, familiāris, natālis, rivālis, sapiens, trirēmis, vocālis*.

c. The ablative of *fames* is always *famē*. The defective *mane* has sometimes ablative *manī* (probably locative).

d. Most names of towns in **e**, — as *Praeneste, Caere*, — and the mountain *Soracte*, have the ablative in **e**.

58. The regular nominative plural would be **is**, but this is rarely found. The regular accusative **is** is common, but not exclusively used in any word. An old form for both cases is **eis** (diphthong).

59. The following have **um** (not **ium**) in the genitive plural : *canis, juvenis* (original consonant-stems) ; *ambāges, volucris* ; also (sometimes) *apis, caedes, clādes, mensis, sēdes, strues, suboles, vātes*, and (very rarely) patrials in *ās, ātis* ; *is, itis*.

#### 5. — Peculiar Forms.

60. In many nouns the stem is variously modified in the nominative or other cases. Thus —

a. The vowel-stems **gru-**, **su-**, add **s** in the nominative, and are inflected like mute-stems : *grūs* has also a nominative *gruis* ; *sūs* has both *suibus* and *subus* in the dative and ablative plural.

<sup>1</sup> Always *aquā et igni interdīci*.

*b.* In **bov-** (**bou-**) the diphthong **ou** becomes **ō** (**bōs**, **bōvis**). In **nav-** (**nau-**) an **i** is added (**nāvis**, **is**). In **Jōv-** (= **Zeús**) the diphthong becomes **ū** in **Jū-piter** (**pāter**), gen. **Jōvis**, &c.

*c.* In **iter**, **itineris** (N.), **jecur**, **jecinoris** (N.), **supellex**, **supellectilis** (F.), the nominative has been formed from a shorter stem; so that these words show a combination of two distinct forms. The shorter form is found in **jecor-is**.

*d.* Of the many original **s**-stems, only **vās**, **vāsis** (N. pl. **vāsa**, **ōrum**), retains its proper form in the nominative (see 48. *d*).

### 61. Some peculiar forms are thus declined —

Sing.	ox, c.	old man, m.	flesh, f.	bone, n.	force, f.	swine, c.
N., V.	bōs	sēnex	caro	ōs	vīs	sūs
GEN.	bōvis	senis	carnis	ossis	vīs (rare)	suis
DAT.	bovī	senī	carnī	ossi	—	sui
ACC.	bovem	senem	carnem	os	vim	suem
ABL.	bove	sene	carne	osse	vī	sue
Plur.	cattle.				strength.	
N., A., V.	bovēs	senēs	carnēs	ossa	vīrēs	suēs
GEN.	boum	senum	carnium	ossium	vīrium	suum
DAT., ABL.	bōbus	senibus	carnibus	ossibus	vīribus	sūbus
	(būbus)					(suibus)

62. The **LOCATIVE** form for nouns of the third declension ends indifferently like the dative or ablative: as, **rurī**, in the country; **Carthāginī** or **Carthāgine**, at Carthage; **Trallibus**, at Tralles. The singular form in **ē** appears to have been first used in poetry.

### 6. — Greek Forms.

63. Many nouns originally Greek — mostly proper names — retain Greek forms of inflection.

*a.* Stems in **īn-** (**i** long): **delphīnus**, **ī** (M.), has also the form **delphīn**, **īntr**, **Salamis**, **is** (F.), has acc. **Salamīna**. **Phorcyas** has gen. **Phorcyos** and **Phorcydos**.

*b.* Most stems in **īd-** (nom. **is**) often have also the forms of **i**-stems: as, **tigris**, **īdis** (**īdos**) or **is**: acc. **īdem** (**īda**) or **im** (**īn**); abl. **īde** or **ī**. But many, including most feminine proper names, have acc. **īdem** (**īda**), abl. **īde**, — not **im** and **ī**. (These follow the forms in Greek, which depend on the place of the *accent*.)

*c.* Stems in **ōn-** sometimes retain **n**: as, **Agamemnōn** (or **Agamemno**), **ōnis**, accusative **ōna**.

*d.* Stems in **ont-** form the nom. in **ōn**: as, **horizon**, **Xenophon**; but a few are occasionally latinized into **ōn-** (nominative **o**): as, **Draco**, **ōnis**.

e. Stems in *ant-*, *ent-*, have nom. in *ās*, *īs* : *as*, *adāmās*, *antis*; *Sīmōis*, *entis*. So a few in *unt-* (contracted from *oent-*) have *ūs* : *as*, *Trapēsūs*, *untis*. Occasionally the Latin form of nominative is also found : *as*, *Atlāns*, *elephāns*.

f. CASE FORMS. — Many Greek nouns (especially in the poets) have gen. *ōs*, acc. *ā*; plur. nom. *ēs*, acc. *ās* : *as*, *aēr*, *aethēr*, *orātēr*, *hērōs* (*ōis*), *lampas* (*ādis* or *ādos*), *lynx* (*ois* or *cōs*), *nāis* (*idos*), *Orpheus* (*eos* : see 43).

g. A few in *ys* have acc. *yn*, voc. *y*; abl. *yē* : *as*, *chelys*, *yn*, *y*; *Capy*s, *yos*, *yī*, *yn*, *y*, *yē*.

h. Several feminine names in *ō* have gen. sing. *ūs*, all the other cases ending in *ō*; they may also have regular forms : *as*, *Dīdo*, gen. *Dīdōnis* or *Dīdūs*; dat. *Dīdōnī* or *Dīdo*, &c.

64. Some of these forms are seen in the following examples : —

Sing.	<i>hero</i> , M.	<i>torch</i> , F.	<i>base</i> , F.	<i>tiger</i> , C.	<i>naiad</i> , F.	<i>lyre</i> , F.
N., V.	<i>hērōs</i>	<i>lampas</i>	<i>basis</i>	<i>tigris</i>	<i>nāis</i>	<i>chelys</i>
GEN.	<i>hērōis</i>	<i>lampados</i>	<i>baseōs</i>	<i>tigris</i> ( <i>idos</i> )	<i>nāidos</i>	—
DAT.	<i>hērōi</i>	<i>lampadī</i>	<i>basī</i>	<i>tigrī</i>	<i>nāidī</i>	—
ACC.	<i>hērōa</i>	<i>lampada</i>	<i>basin</i>	<i>tigrin</i> ( <i>ida</i> )	<i>nāida</i>	<i>chelyn</i>
ABL.	<i>hērōe</i>	<i>lampade</i>	<i>basī</i>	<i>tigrī</i> ( <i>ide</i> )	<i>nāide</i>	V. <i>chely</i>
Plur.						
N. V.	<i>hērōēs</i>	<i>lampadēs</i>	<i>basēs</i>	<i>tigrēs</i>	<i>nāidēs</i>	
GEN.	<i>hērōum</i>	<i>lampadum</i>	<i>basium</i> ( <i>eon</i> )	<i>tigrum</i>	<i>nāidum</i>	
D., ABL.	<i>hērōisin</i>	<i>lampadibus</i>	<i>basibus</i>	<i>tigribus</i>	<i>nāidibus</i>	
ACC.	<i>hērōās</i>	<i>lampadās</i>	<i>basīs</i> ( <i>eis</i> )	<i>tigrīs</i> ( <i>idās</i> )	<i>nāidās</i>	

PROPER NAMES.

NOM.	<i>Atlās</i>	<i>Dīdō</i>	<i>Sīmōis</i>	<i>Capy</i> s	<i>Daphnis</i>
GEN.	<i>Atlantis</i>	<i>Dīdōnis</i> ( <i>ūs</i> )	<i>Sīmōentis</i>	<i>Capyos</i>	<i>Daphnidis</i>
DAT.	<i>Atlantī</i>	<i>Dīdōnī</i> ( <i>ō</i> )	<i>Sīmōentī</i>	<i>Capyī</i>	<i>Daphnidī</i>
ACC.	<i>Atlanta</i>	<i>Dīdōnem</i> ( <i>ō</i> )	<i>Sīmōenta</i>	<i>Capyn</i>	<i>Daphnim</i> ( <i>in</i> )
VOC.	<i>Atlās</i>	<i>Dīdō</i>	<i>Sīmōis</i>	<i>Capy</i>	<i>Daphnī</i>
ABL.	<i>Atlante</i>	<i>Dīdōne</i> ( <i>ō</i> )	<i>Sīmōente</i>	<i>Capye</i>	<i>Daphnī</i>

NOTE. — The regular Latin forms can be used for most of the above.

7. — Rules of Gender.

65. The following are general Rules of Gender of nouns of the third declension, classed according to the *termination of the nominative*.<sup>1</sup>

<sup>1</sup> Rules of Gender are mostly only rules of memory, as there is no necessary connection between the form and gender. But the preference of masculine and feminine (especially feminine) for long vowels cannot be accidental (compare long A of 1st declension). Some affixes also prefer one or another gender : *as*, *TOR* (originally *TAR*), *masculine*; *TI*, *feminine*; *MEN* (originally *MAN*), *neuter*.

a. Masculine endings are o, or, ōa, er, ēa (gen. *īdīa, ītīa*).

b. Feminine endings are ās (*ātīa*), ēa (*īa*), īa, ya, z, s (following a consonant); also, dō, go (*īnīa*), īo (abstract and collective), and ūa (*ūdīa, ūtīa*).

c. Neuter endings are a, e, ī, y; o, l, t; men (*mīnīa*); ar, ur, ūa (*ōrīa, ōrīa*).

66. The following are general Rules of Gender of nouns of the third declension, classed *according to their stems*.

a. VOWEL STEMS. — Stems in i-, having s in the nominative, are Feminine, except those mentioned below (67, a). Those having nominative in ē, or which drop the e, are neuter.

b. LIQUID STEMS. — Stems in l- are Masculine, except *sil, fel, mel*, and sometimes *sal* (N.). Those in mīn- are Neuter, except *homo, nēmo, flāmen* (M.). Others in in- are Masculine, except *pollen, unguen* (N.). Those in ōn- are Masculine. Those in dīn-, gīn-, īōn- (abstract and collective) are Feminine. Others in ōn-, with *cardo, margo, ordo, ūnio, sēnio, quaternio*, are Masculine. Those in r preceded by a short vowel are Neuter, except about 30 given below. Those in r- preceded by a long vowel are Masculine, except *soror, uxor, glōs, tellūs*, F.; *crūs, jūs, pūs, rūs, tūs* (in which the long vowel is due to contraction), N.

c. LABIAL STEMS (no neuters). — Stems in b and m are Feminine, except *chalybs*. Those in p are chiefly Masculine (exceptions below).

d. LINGUAL STEMS. — Stems in ād-, ēd-, īd-, nd-, ūd-, aud-, are Feminine, except *dromas, pes, quadrupes, obses, praeses, lapis* (M.). Those in āt-, ūt-, are Feminine, except patrials (as *Arpīnās*), with *penātēs* and *optimātēs* (M.). Those in ōd-, īt-, are Masculine, except *merces* and *quies* with its compounds (F.). Those in ōt-, īt-, are Masculine, except *abies, merges, seges, teges* (F.), and those which are Common from signification. Those in āt- are Neuter; those in nt- various (see List); those in lt-, rt-, Feminine. (For a few isolated forms, see List.)

e. PALATAL STEMS. — Stems in o preceded by a consonant or long vowel are Feminine, except *calx, decunx, phoenix, storax, vervex*, M. Those in o preceded by a short vowel are chiefly Masculine (for exceptions, see List); those in g, Masculine, except [*frux*], *lex, phalanx, syrinx*; also *nix, nīvis* (F.).



67. The following are the Forms of Inflection of nouns of the Third Declension, classed according to their Stems:—

a. VOWEL-STEMS.

**ēs, is**:—about 35 nouns (see list 51. a), Feminine, except *tudes, vātes, verres*, M.

**īs, is**:—about 100 nouns, chiefly Feminine.

Exc.—*aedilis, amnis, anguis*, C., *annālis, antes, assis, axis, būris, callis*, C., *canālis*, C., *canis*, C., *cassis, caulis, civis*, C., *clūnis*, C., *collis, crīnis*, C., *ensis, fascis, fīnis*, C., *follis, fūnis*, C., *fustis, hostis*, C., *ignis, juvenis*, C., *lactes* C., *lares, mānes* (pl.), *mensis, molāris, nātālis, orbis, pānis, pedis*, C., *piscis, postis, sentis*, C., *sodālis, testis*, C., *torris, unguis, vectis, vepres*, C. (pl.), *vermis*, M. [Those marked C. are sometimes feminine; the rest are masculine.]

**ēs, is**:—upwards of 20 nouns, all Neuter.

**āl, ālis**; **ār, āris**:—24 neuter, with several used only in the plural (see list, 53. b: for those in *ār, āris*, see Liquid Stems).

**ēr, ris**:—*imber, linter, ūter, venter*,—all M. except *linter*, which is commonly F. [For other apparent consonant-stems see below.]

PECULIAR:—*grus, gruis*, F.; *rhus, rhois* (acc. *rhum*), M.; *sus, suis*, C.; *hērōs, hērōis*, M.; *misy, yos*, F.; *oxys, yos*, F.; *cinnabāri, gummi, sināpi* (indecl.), N.; *chelys, yn, y*, F.; *bos, bovis*, C.

b. LIQUID-STEMS.

**l, lis**:—9 nouns, Masculine, except *sil*, and (sometimes) *sal*, N.

**ēn, ēnis**:—[*rēn*], *splēn*; *hymen* (*ēnis*), M.

**ēn, īnis**:—10 nouns, M., except *pollen, unguen*, N.

**mēn, mīnis** (verbal):—about 60 nouns, N.; but *flāmen*, M.

**ōn, ōnis** (Greek):—*canon, daemon, gnōmon*, M.;—*aēdon, alcyon, ancon, sindon*, F.

**o, ōnis**:—about 70 nouns, all Masculine; with many family names, as *Cicero*.

**io, iōnis** (material objects, &c.):—about 30 nouns, Masculine.

**io, iōnis** (abstract and collective):—upwards of 180, Feminine, including many rare verbal abstracts.

**o, īnis**:—*homo, turbo, nēmo, Apollo*, M.

**do, dīnis**:—nearly 50 nouns, Feminine except *cardo, ordo*, M.

**go, gīnis**:—about 40 nouns, Feminine; with *margo*, M. or F.

**ar, āris**:—*baccar, jubar, nectar*, N.; *lar, salar*, M.

**ēr, ris**:—*accipiter, frāter, pater*, M., *māter*, F.

**ēr, ēris** (Greek):—*crāter, halter, prester*, M., *ver*, N.

**ör, öris** : — *acipenser*, (*āēr*), *aether*, *agger*, *anser*, *asser*, *aster*, *cancer*, *carcer*, *later*, *passer*, *vesper*, *vōmer*, M.; — *mulier*, F.; — *acer*, *cadāver*, *cicer*, *laver*, *pāpāver*, *pīper*, *siler*, *siser*, *süber*, *tüber*, *tüber*, *über*, *verber*, N.

**is, öris** : — *cinis*, *cucūmis*, *pulvis*, *vōmis*, M.

**ör (ōs), öris** : — nearly 70 nouns (besides many denoting the Agent, formed upon verb-stems), all M., except *soror*, *uxor*, F.

**ör, öris** : — *castor*, *rhētor*, M.; *arbor*, F.; *ador*, *aequor*, *marmor*, N.

**ōa, öris** : — *flos*, *mos*, *ros*, M.; *glos*, F.; *ōs*, N.

**ūr, öris** : — *ebur*, *femur*, *jecur*, *rōbur* (*us*), N.

**ūr, ūris** : — 9 Masculine; with *fulgur*, *murmur*, *sulfur*, N.

**us, öris** : — 20 Neuter; also, *Venus*, F.

**us, öris** : — 14 nouns, Neuter, except *lepus*, M.

**ūs, ūris** : — *mus*, M.; *tellus*, F.; *crus*, *jus*, *pus*, *rus*, *tus*, N.

**PECULIAR** : — *delphin*, *īnis*; *fur*, *fūris*; *sanguis* (*en*), *īnis*; *senex*, *senis*, M.; *caro*, *carnis*, F.; *aes*, *aeris*; *far*, *farris*; *fel*, *fel-lis*; *mel*, *mellis*; *iter*, *itineris*; *jecur*, *jecinōdis* (*jecōdis*), N.; *glīs*, *glīris*, M.

#### C. LABIAL.

**bs, bis** : — *chalybs*, M.; *plebs*, *trabs*, *urbs*, F.; *scrobs*, C. *scobs*.

**ms, mis** : — *hiems* (often written *hiemps*), F.

**ps, pis** : — 15 nouns, Masculine, except [*daps*], *merops*, *ops*, *stips*, F.; *forceps*, *stirps*, C.

#### D. LINGUAL.

**ās, ādis** (Greek) : — 14 nouns, Feminine, except *dromas*, *vas*, M.

**ēs, ēdis** : — *cūpes*, *hēres*, *praes*, M.; *merces*, F.

**ēs, ēdis** : — *pes*, *quadrupes*, M.; *compes*, F.

**ēs, īdis** : — *obses*, *praeses*, C.

**īs, īdis** : — nearly 40 nouns (mostly Greek), F.; *lapis*, M.

**ōs, ōdis** : — *custos*, C.

**ōs, ōtis** : — *nepos*, M.; *cos*, *dos*, F.; *sacerdos*, C.

**ūs, ūdis** : — *incus*, *palus*, *subscus* : with *fraus*, *laus*, *pecūs* (*ūdis*), F.

**ā, ātis** (Greek) : — nearly 20 nouns, Neuter.

**ās, ātis** : — about 20 (besides derivatives), F.; also, *anas* (*ātis*), C.

**ēs, ētis** : — *celes*, *lebes*, *magnes*, M.; *quies*, *requies*, *inquies*, F.

**es, ētis** : — *aries*, *paries*, M.; *abies*, *seges*, *teges*, F.; *interpretes*, C.

**ēs, ītis** : — about 20 nouns, Masculine or Common.

**ūs, ūtis** : — *juventus*, *salus*, *senectus*, *servitus*, *virtus*, F.

**ns, ndis** : — *frons*, *glans*, *juglans*, F.

**ns, ntis** : — nearly 20 (besides many participles used as nouns),

Common; *dens*, *fons*, *mons*, *pons*, M.; *frons*, *gens*, *lens*, *mens*, F.

**ra, rtis** (originally *i*-stems) : — *ars, cohors, fors, mors, sors*, F.

**ya, ydis ; a, ntis** (Greek) : — *chlamys*, F. ; *Atlas, antis*, M.

**PECULIAR** : — *as, assis*, M. ; *lis, litis* ; *nox, noctis* ; *puls, pultis*, F. ; *caput, itis* ; *cor, cordis* ; *hepar, atis* ; *os, ossis* ; *vas, vasis*, N. ; also, compounds of *-pūs, -pōdis*, M., Gr. for *pes* (foot).

#### e. PALATAL.

**ax, ācis** : *anthrax, corax, frax* (pl.), *panax, scolopax*, M. ; *fax, styrax (storax)*, F.

**āx, ācis** : — *cnōdax, cordax, limax, thōrax*, M. ; *pax*, F.

**ex, ēcis** : — *alex*, M. or F. ; *vervex*, M.

**ex, īcis** : — upwards of 40 nouns, Masculine, except *cārex, forfex, ilex, imbrex, nex (nēcis), pellex*, F.

**ix, īcis** : — *appendix, coxendix, filix, fornix, larix, salix, struix, varix*, F.

**ix, īcis** : — about 30 nouns, Feminine ; besides many in **trix**, regular feminines of nouns of agency in **tor**.

**ōx, ōcis** : — *celox, vox*, F.

**ux, ūcis** : — *dux*, C. ; *crux, nux*, F.

**ūx, ūcis** : — *balux, lux*, F.

**x, cis** : — *arx, calx, falx, lynx, merx* (def.), F. ; *calyx, calx*, M.

**x, gis** : — *conjux (nx), grex, remex, rex*, M. or C. ; *frux* (def.), *lex, phalanx*, F., with a few rare names of animals.

Other nouns in **x** are *nix, nivis* ; *nox, noctis* ; *supellex, ectilis*, F. ; *onyx, ychis*, M.

#### FOURTH DECLENSION.

**NOTE.** — The Stem of nouns of the Fourth Declension ends in **u**. This is usually weakened to **i** before **-bus**. Masculine and feminine nouns form the nominative by adding **s** ; neuters have for nominative the simple stem, but with **ū** (long).

**68.** Nouns of the Fourth Declension are declined as follows : —

Sing.	<i>hand</i> (F.).	<i>lake</i> (M.).	<i>knee</i> (N.).
NOM.	<b>manus</b>	<b>lacus</b>	<b>genū</b>
GEN.	<b>manūs</b>	<b>lacūs</b>	<b>genū (ūs)</b>
DAT.	<b>manūi</b>	<b>lacui</b>	<b>genū</b>
ACC.	<b>manum</b>	<b>lacum</b>	<b>genū</b>
VOC.	<b>manus</b>	<b>lacus</b>	<b>genū</b>
ABL.	<b>manū</b>	<b>lacū</b>	<b>genū</b>

## Plur.

NOM.	manūs	lacūs	genua
GEN.	manuum	lacuum	genuum
DAT.	manibus	lacubus	genibus
ACC.	manūs	lacūs	genua
VOC.	manūs	lacūs	genua
ABL.	manibus	lacubus	genibus

NOTE. — The Genitive singular is contracted from the old form in *uis*. The Dative Singular is also found contracted to *fi*.

69. GENDER. — *a*. Most nouns in *us* are Masculine. The following are Feminine: — *acus*, *anus*, *colus*, *domus*, *idus* (pl.), *manus*, *nurus*, *porticus*, *quinguātrus*, *socrus*, *tribus*, with a few names of plants and trees. Also, rarely, *arcus*, *penus*, *specus*.

*b*. The only neuters are *cornu*, *genu*, *pecu* (def.), *veru*.<sup>1</sup>

70. CASE-FORMS. — *a*. A genitive in *os* (an earlier form) is sometimes found: as, *senātusos*; and an old (irregular) genitive in *i* is used by some writers.

*b*. The nominative plural has rarely the form *uus*.

*c*. The genitive plural is sometimes contracted into *um*.

*d*. The following retain the regular dative and ablative plural in *ibus*: *artus*, *partus*, *portus*, *tribus*, *veru*; also dissyllables in *-cus*, as *lacus* (but sometimes *portibus*, *veribus*).

*e*. Most names of plants, and *colus*, *distaff*, have also forms of the second declension.

*f*. *Domus*, *house*, has two stems, ending in *u* and *o*, and is declined as follows: <sup>2</sup> —

	SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
NOM.	domus	domūs
GEN.	domūs (domī, loc.)	domuum (domōrum)
DAT.	domuī (domo)	domibus
ACC.	domum	domōs (domūs)
VOC.	domus	domūs
ABL.	domō (domū)	domibus

71. Most nouns of the fourth declension are formed from verb-stems, with the suffix *-tus* (*sus*): as, *cantus*, *song*, from *cāno*, *sing*; *cāsus* (for *cad-tus*), *chance*, from *cado*, *fall*; *exsulātus*, *exile*, from *exsulō*, *to be an exile* (*exsul*). Many are formed either from verb-stems not in use, or by false analogy: as, *consulātus*, *senātus*, *incestus*.

<sup>1</sup> Some others are mentioned by grammarians, and the form *assua*, as from *assu*, occurs in inscriptions.

<sup>2</sup> The forms in parenthesis are less common. The form *domī* is regularly locative, genitive only in Plautus; *domuī* is also locative; *domōrum* is poetic.

a. The Supines of verbs are the accusative and ablative (or dative, perhaps both) of derivatives in **tus (sus)**: as, *audītum*, *memorātū*.

b. Of many only the ablative is used as a noun: as, **jussu** (*meo*), *by my command*; so **injussu** (*populi*), *without the people's order*. Of some only the dative: as, *memorātui*, *divisui*.

### FIFTH DECLENSION.

NOTE.—The Stem of nouns of the Fifth Declension ends in **ē**, which appears in all the cases. The nominative is formed from the stem by adding **s**.

72. Nouns of the Fifth Declension are thus declined:—

	SING. <i>thing</i> (F.) PLUR.		SING. <i>day</i> (M.) PLUR.		<i>faith</i> (F.)
NOM.	<b>rēs</b>	<b>rēs</b>	<b>diēs</b>	<b>diēs</b>	<b>fidēs</b>
GEN.	<b>rēi</b> <sup>1</sup>	<b>rērum</b>	<b>diēi</b> (diē)	<b>diērum</b>	<b>fidēi</b>
DAT.	<b>rēi</b>	<b>rēbus</b>	<b>diēi</b> (diē)	<b>diēbus</b>	<b>fidēi</b>
ACC.	<b>rem</b>	<b>rēs</b>	<b>diem</b>	<b>diēs</b>	<b>fidem</b>
VOC.	<b>rēs</b>	<b>rēs</b>	<b>diēs</b>	<b>diēs</b>	<b>fidēs</b>
ABL.	<b>rē</b>	<b>rēbus</b>	<b>diē</b>	<b>diēbus</b>	<b>fidē</b>

73. GENDER.—All nouns of this declension are feminine, except **dies** (usually M.), and **merīdies** (M.). **Dies** is sometimes feminine in the singular, especially in phrases indicating a fixed time, or time in general: as, *longa dies*, *constitutā die*; also in the poets: as, *pulcra dies*.

74. CASE-FORMS.—a. The genitive singular anciently ended in **ēs** (cf. **ās** of first declension); and **ēi** was sometimes contracted into **i** or **e**, as in *dii* (*Æn.* i. 676), and in the phrase *plebi-scītum* (*Fr. plēbiscite*). An old dative in **i** or **ē** also occurs.

b. Several nouns of the fifth declension have also forms of the first, of which this is only a variety: as, *materia*, *-ies*, *saevitia*, *-ies*.<sup>2</sup> The genitive and dative in **ēi** are rarely found in these words.

<sup>1</sup> The **e** is usually shortened in the gen. and dat. singular in *fides*, *spes*, *res*.

<sup>2</sup> Nouns in *ies* (except *dies*) are original A-stems. The others are probably (excepting *res*) corrupted s-stems, like *moles*, *moles-tus*; *dies*, *diurnus*; *spes*, *spēro*. Some vary between this and the third declension: as, *requies*, *saties* (*satias*, *ātis*); *plebes* (*plebs*, *plēbis*), *famē* (*fames*, *is*); with others, as *saties* (for *satietas*), &c.

c. The Locative form of this declension is represented by *-e*, as in *hodie, to-day*; *perendie, day-after-to-morrow*; *die quarto* (antiquated *quarti*), *the fourth day*; *pridie, the day before*.

d. The only nouns of this declension complete in all their parts are *dies* and *res*. Most want the plural, which is, however, found in the nominative and accusative in the following: *acies, effigies, eluvies, facies, glacies, series, species, spes*.<sup>1</sup>

#### Defective Nouns.

75. Some nouns are ordinarily found in the Singular number only. These are —

1. Proper names: as, *Caesar, Cæsar*; *Gallia, Gaul*.
2. Names of things not counted, but reckoned in mass (*continua*): as, *aurum, gold*; *far, corn*; *āēr, air*.
3. Abstract nouns: as, *ambitio, ambition*; *fortitūdo, courage*; *calor, heat*.

But many of these can be used in the plural in some other sense. Thus —

a. A proper name may be applied to two or more persons or places, and so becomes strictly common: as, *duodecim Caesares, the twelve Cæsars*; *Galliae, the two Gauls* (Cis- and Trans-alpine); *Castōres, Castor and Pollux*; *Joves, images of Jupiter*.

b. Particular objects or kinds of a thing may be denoted: as, *aera, brazen utensils*; *nives, snow-flakes*; *calōres, frigora, times of heat and cold*.

c. The plural of Abstract nouns denotes *occasions* or *instances* of the quality, or the like: as, *quædam exoellentiae, some cases of superiority*; *ōtia, periods of rest*.

76. Some are commonly found only in the Plural: —

1. Many proper names, including names of Festivals and Games: as, *Bacchānālia, festival of Bacchus*; *Quinquātrūs, festival of Minerva*; *lūdi Rōmāni, the Roman Games*.

2. Names of Classes: as, *optimātes, the upper classes*; *mājōres, ancestors*; *liberi, children*; *penātes, household gods*.

3. Words plural from signification: as, *arma, weapons*; *artūs, joints*; *divitiæ, riches*; *scalæ, stairs*; *valvæ, folding-doors*; *fores, door-way*.

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<sup>1</sup> The forms *facierum, specierum, speciebus, sp̄rum, sp̄bus*, are cited; also *sp̄res, sp̄eribus*.

These often have a corresponding singular in some form or other, as nouns or adjectives:—

a. As nouns, to denote a single object: as, *Bacchānal*, a spot sacred to Bacchus; *optimās*, an aristocrat.

b. As adjectives: as, *Cato Māior*, Cato the Elder.

c. In a sense rare or obsolete: as *scala*, a ladder; *valva*, a door; *artus*, a joint (Lucan).

77. The following are defective in Case-Forms:—

1. Indeclinable nouns: *fās*, *nefās*, *instar*, *necesse*, *nikil*, *opus* ("need"), *secus*.

2. Nouns found in one case only (*monoptotes*): *glōs* (F.), *infitiās* (F.), *mane* (N. nom., acc., and abl.), *nauci* (N.), *pondo* (N.), *suppetiās* (F.), *dicis* (gen.).

3. In two cases only (*diptotes*): *astus*, *u* (M.), *dicam*, *ās* (F.), *forās*, *īs* (F.), *fors*, *forte* (F.), *spontis*, *e* (F.), *venui*, *um* (M.).

4. In three cases (*triptotes*): *grātia*, *ās*, *īs* (F.), *impetus*, *um*, *ū* (M.), *jugera*, *um*, *ibus* (N.), *luēs*, *em*, *e* (F.).

5. The following are defective only in the singular: *ambāge* (F.), *fauce* (F.), *obice* (M. or F., nom. rare), *cassem*, *e* (M.), *precem*, *i*, *e* (F.), *sordem*, *e* (F.), *opis*, *em*, *e* (dat. rare), *dapis*, *i*, *em*, *e* (F., nom. rare), *dicidōnis*, *i*, *em*, *e* (F.), *frūgis*, *i*, *em*, *e* (F.).

6. The following are defective in the plural: *jūra*, *rūra* (N. nom. and acc.); *sentis*, *em*; *ēs*, *ibus* (M.), *vicis*, *em*, *e*; *ēs*, *ibus* (F.). *Cor*, *cōs*, *fax*, *faex*, *lūx*, *nex*, *ōs*, *pāx*, *praes*, *rōs*, *sal*, *sōl*, *tūs*, *vās*, *vēr*, are not found in the genitive plural (see also 74. d; 75).

Some other forms of these words are rarely found.

#### Variable Nouns.

78. Some nouns have two or more forms of Declension (*heteroclites*).<sup>1</sup> These are—

*Colus*, with many names of plants (F. of second or fourth declension); *femur*, *oris*, or *inis* (N.); *jugerum*, *i* (N.), abl. *e*, pl. *a*, *um*; *Mulciber*, *beri*, or *beris* (M.); *mūnus*, *eris* (N.); *pubes*, *eris*, *em*, *e* (M.); *penus*, *i*, or *oris* (N.); *sacvitia*, *ae*; *-ies*, *iem*; *-itūdo*, *inis* (F.); *sequester*, *tri*, or *tris*; with many in *ia* or *iēs* (see 74. b), and a few other rare forms.

<sup>1</sup> These variations often result from the confusion of two stems from the same root: as, *domi* (o-stem), *domui* (u-stem). Compare such words as *iter*, *itineris*; *jecur*, *jecoris*, or *jecoris*. The gender is an accidental peculiarity.

**79. Some nouns are found of more than one Gender (*heterogeneous*).**

a. The following have a masculine form in *us* and a neuter in *um*: — *balteus*, *caseus*, *clipeus*, *collum*, *jugulum*, *pileus*, *tergum*, *vallum*, with many others of rare occurrence.

b. The following have the plural in a different gender from the singular: — *balneum* (N.), *balneae* (F.); *caelum* (N.), *caelos* (M. acc.); *carbasus* (F.), *carbasa*, *orum* (N.), *delicium* (N.), *dēliciae* (F.); *epulum* (N.), *epulae* (F.); *frēnum* (N.), *frēni* (M. or *frēna*, N.); *jocus* (M.), *joca* (N. or *joci*, M.); *rastrum* (N.), *rastri* (M.); *locus* (M.), *loca* (N.: *loci*, M., is usually *topics* or *detached spots*).

c. Many nouns vary in meaning as they are found in the singular or plural: as,

<i>aedes</i> , is (F.), <i>temple</i> ;	<i>aedes</i> , ium, <i>house</i> .
<i>aqua</i> (F.), <i>water</i> ;	<i>aquae</i> , a <i>watering-place</i> .
<i>auxilium</i> (N.), <i>help</i> ;	<i>auxilia</i> , <i>auxiliaries</i> .
<i>bonum</i> (N.), a <i>good</i> ;	<i>bona</i> , <i>property</i> .
<i>carcer</i> (M.), <i>dungeon</i> ;	<i>carcēres</i> , <i>barriers</i> (of race-course).
<i>castrum</i> (N.), <i>fort</i> ;	<i>castra</i> , <i>camp</i> .
<i>codicillus</i> (M.), <i>bit of wood</i> ;	<i>codicilli</i> , <i>tablets</i> .
<i>comitium</i> (N.), <i>place of assembly</i> ;	<i>comitia</i> , a <i>political assembly</i> .
<i>cōpia</i> (F.), <i>plenty</i> ;	<i>cōpiae</i> , <i>troops</i> .
<i>fides</i> (F.), <i>harp-string</i> ;	<i>fides</i> , <i>lyre</i> .
<i>fīnis</i> (M.), <i>end</i> ;	<i>fīnes</i> , <i>bounds</i> , <i>territories</i> .
<i>fortūna</i> (F.), <i>fortune</i> ;	<i>fortūnae</i> , <i>possessions</i> .
<i>grātia</i> (F.), <i>favor</i> ;	<i>grātiae</i> , <i>thanks</i> .
<i>hortus</i> (M.), a <i>garden</i> ;	<i>horti</i> , <i>pleasure-grounds</i> .
<i>impedimentum</i> (N.), <i>hinderance</i> ;	<i>impedimenta</i> , <i>baggage</i> .
<i>littera</i> (F.), <i>letter</i> (of alphabet);	<i>litterae</i> , <i>epistle</i> .
<i>lōcus</i> (M.), <i>place</i> [pl. <i>loca</i> (N.)];	<i>loci</i> , <i>passages in books</i> . (In early writers this is the regular plur.).
<i>ludus</i> (M.), <i>sport</i> ;	<i>ludi</i> , <i>public games</i> .
<i>nātālis</i> (M.), <i>birthday</i> ;	<i>nātāles</i> , <i>descent</i> .
<i>opera</i> (F.), <i>task</i> ;	<i>operae</i> , <i>day-laborers</i> ("hands").
<i>opis</i> (F. gen.), <i>help</i> ;	<i>opes</i> , <i>resources</i> , <i>wealth</i> .
<i>pars</i> (F.), a <i>part</i> ;	<i>partes</i> , <i>part</i> (on the stage), <i>party</i> .
<i>plāga</i> (F.), <i>region</i> [plāga, <i>blow</i> ];	<i>plāgae</i> , <i>snares</i> .
<i>rōstrum</i> (N.), <i>beak of a ship</i> ;	<i>rōstra</i> , <i>speaker's platform</i> .
<i>sāl</i> (M. or N.), <i>salt</i> ;	<i>sales</i> , <i>witticisms</i> .
<i>tabella</i> (F.), <i>tablet</i> ;	<i>tabellae</i> , <i>documents</i> .



**sestertius** (M.) means the sum of  $2\frac{1}{2}$  asses, = about 5 cents.

**sestertium** (N.) means the sum of 1000 sestertii, = about \$50.

**decies sestertium** (sc. *centēna millia*) means the sum of 1000 sestertia, = \$50,000 (nearly).

*d.* Sometimes a noun in combination with an adjective takes a special signification, both parts being regularly inflected: as, *jus-jūrandum*, *jūris-jūrandi*, *oath*; *respublica*, *reipublicae*, *commonwealth*.

#### Proper Names.

80. A Roman had regularly three names, denoting the *person*, the *gens*, and the *family*.

*a.* Thus, in the name *Marcus Tullius Cicero*, we have **MARCUS**, the *prænomen*, or personal name; **TULLIUS**, the *nōmen* (properly an adjective), i.e. the name of the *Gens*, or house, whose original head was *Tullus*; **CICERO**, the *cognōmen*, or family name, often in its origin a nickname, — in this case from *cicor*, a *vetch*, or small pea.

*b.* A fourth or fifth name, called the *agnōmen*, was sometimes given. Thus the complete name of *Scipio the Younger* was *Publius Cornelius Scipio Africānus Æmiliānus*; *Africānus*, from his exploits in *Africa*; *Æmiliānus*, as adopted from the *Æmilian gens*.

*c.* Women had no personal names, but were known only by that of their *Gens*. Thus, the wife of *Cicero* was *Terentia*, and his daughter *Tullia*. A younger sister would have been called *Tullia secunda* or *minor*, and so on.

*d.* The commonest *prænomen*s are thus abbreviated: —

A. Aulus.	L. Lucius.	Q. Quintus.
C. (G.) Gaius ( <i>Caius</i> ).	M. Marcus.	Ser. Servius.
Cn. (Gn.) Gnæus ( <i>Cnæius</i> ).	M'. Manius.	Sex. Sextus.
D. Decimus.	Mam. Mamercus.	Sp. Spurius.
K. Kæso.	N. Numerius.	T. Titus.
App. Appius.	P. Publius.	Ti. Tiberius.

*e.* A feminine *prænomen* is sometimes abbreviated with an inverted letter: as, *Ca* for *Caia* or *Gaia*.

# Chapter IV.—Adjectives.

## INFLECTION.

NOTE.—Adjectives and Participles are in general formed and declined like Nouns, differing from nouns only in their use. In accordance with their use, they distinguish gender by different forms in the same word, corresponding with their nouns in *gender*, *number*, and *case*. They are (1) of the First and Second Declensions, or (2) of the Third Declension.<sup>1</sup>

### 1.—First and Second Declensions.

81. Adjectives of the first and second declensions (o-stems) have the feminine in *a*; they are declined like *servus* (M.), *stella* (F.), *bellum* (N.): as,

Sing.	MASC.	FEM.	NEUT.
NOM.	bonus	bonā	bonum, good.
GEN.	bonī	bonae	bonī
DAT.	bonō	bonae	bonō
ACC.	bonum	bonam	bonum
VOC.	bonē	bonā	bonum
ABL.	bonō	bonā	bonō
Plur.			
NOM.	bonī	bonae	bonā
GEN.	bonōrum	bonārum	bonōrum
DAT.	bonīs	bonīs	bonīs
ACC.	bonōs	bonās	bonā
VOC.	bonī	bonae	bonā
ABL.	bonīs	bonīs	bonīs

*a.* The masculine genitive of adjectives in *ius* ends in *ī*, and the vocative in *īe*; not in *i* as in nouns: as, *Lacedaemonius*, *ii*, *ie*. But the possessive *meus*, *my*, has the vocative masculine *mī*.

*b.* ADVERBS are formed from adjectives of this form by changing the case-ending to *ō*: as, *validō*, *strongly* (from *validus*); *miserō*, *wretchedly* (from *miser*: see 82).

<sup>1</sup> Most Latin adjectives and participles are either *o*-stems with the corresponding feminine *a*-stems (originally *ā* and *ā*), or *i*-stems. Many, however, were originally stems in *u* or a consonant, which passed over, in all or most of their cases, into the *i*-declension, for which Latin had a special fondness. (Compare the endings *ēs* and *īs* of the third declension with the Greek *ες* and *ας*; *nāvis* (nominative) with the Greek *ναῦς*; *βραχύς* with *brevis*; *cornu* with *bicornis*; *lingua* with *bilinguis*; *cor*, *corde*, *corda*, with *discors*, *-di*, *-dia*, *-dium*; *suāvis* with *ἡδύς*; *ferens*, *-entia*, with *φέρων*, *-οντα*.) A few, which in other languages are nouns, retain the consonant-form: as, *vetus* = *ἔτος*. Comparatives also retain the consonant form in most of their cases.

82. In adjectives of stems ending in *ro-* preceded by *ŏ* or *a* consonant (also *satur*), the masculine nominative is formed like that of *ro-* stems of the second declension (cf. *puer*, *ager*) : as,

Sing.	Miser, wretched.			Niger, black.		
N. miser	miserā	miserum	niger	nigra	nigrum	
G. miserī	miserāe	miserī	nigrī	nigrae	nigrī	
D. miserō	miserāe	miserō	nigrō	nigrae	nigrō	
Ac. miserum	miseram	miserum	nigrum	nigram	nigrum	
V. miser	miserā	miserum	niger	nigra	nigrum	
Ab. miserō	miserā	miserō	nigrō	nigrā	nigrō	
Plur.						
N. miserī	miserāe	miserā	nigrī	nigrae	nigra	
G. miserōrum	miserārum	miserōrum	nigrōrum	nigrārum	nigrōrum	
D. miserīs	miserīs	miserīs	nigrīs	nigrīs	nigrīs	
Ac. miserōs	miserās	miserā	nigrōs	nigrās	nigra	
V. miserī	miserāe	miserā	nigrī	nigrae	nigra	
Ab. miserīs	miserīs	miserīs	nigrīs	nigrīs	nigrīs	

a. Stems in *ōro* (as *procērus*), with *morigērus*, *propērus*, *postērus*, have the regular nominative in *us*.

b. Like *miser* are declined *asper*, *gibber*, *lacer*, *liber*, *miser*, *prosper* (*erus*), *satur* (*ura*, *urum*), *tēher*, with compounds of *-fer* and *-ger*; also, usually, *dexter*. In these the *e* belongs to the stem; but in *dexter* it is often syncopated : *dextra*, *dextrum*.

c. Like *niger* are declined *aeger*, *āter*, *creber*, *faber*, *glaber*, *integer*, *ludicer*, *macer*, *niger*, *noster*, *piger*, *pulcher*, *ruber*, *sacer*, *scaber*, *sinister*, *tēter*, *vafer*, *vester*.

d. The following feminines lack a masculine singular nominative in classic use : — *cetera*, *infera*, *postera*, *supera*. They are rarely found in the singular except in certain phrases : as, *postero die*. A feminine ablative in *o* is found in a few Greek adjectives, as *lecticā octophōro* (Verr. v. 11).

83. The following (*o*-stems) with their compounds have the genitive singular in *ius* and the dative in *i* in all the genders : —

<i>alius</i> (N. <i>aliud</i> ), other.	<i>tōtus</i> , whole.	<i>alter</i> <sup>1</sup> , other (of two).
<i>nullus</i> , none.	<i>ullus</i> , any.	<i>neuter</i> , trius, neither.
<i>sōlus</i> , alone.	<i>ūnus</i> , one.	<i>ūter</i> , trius, which (of two).

<sup>1</sup> The suffix *TER*, in *alter*, *uter*, *neuter*, is the same as the Greek comparative suffix *-τερος*. The stem of *alius* appears in early Latin and in derivatives as *ALI-*, in the forms *alis*, *alid* (for *aliud*), *aliter*, &c. The regular forms of the genitive and dative are also found in early writers. Instead of *alius* (genitive), *alterius* is commonly used, or (for the possessive) the adjective *alienus*.

These words, in Greek and Sanskrit, are treated as pronouns, which accords with the pronominal forms of the genitive in *ius*, the dative in *i*, and the neuter

1a. Of these the singular is thus declined:—

	M.	F.	N.	M.	F.	N.
NOM.	ūnus	ūna	ūnum	uter	utra	utrum
GEN.	ūnius	ūniūs	ūniūs	utrius	utrius	utrius
DAT.	ūnī	ūnī	ūnī	utrī	utrī	utrī
ACC.	ūnum	ūnam	ūnum	utrum	utram	utrum
ABL.	ūnō	ūnā	ūnō	utrō	utrā	utrō
NOM.	alius	alia	aliud	alter	altera	alterum
GEN.	alius	alius	alius	alterius	alterius	alterius
DAT.	aliī	aliī	aliī	alterī	alterī	alterī
ACC.	aliū	aliā	aliud	alterum	alteram	alterum
ABL.	aliō	aliā	aliō	alterō	alterā	alterō

b. The plural of these words is regular, like that of *bonus*.

### 2.—Third Declension.

84. Adjectives of the third declension having stems in *i*—distinguished by being *parisyllabic*—have properly no distinct form for the feminine, and hence are called *adjectives of two terminations*. In the neuter the nominative ends in *e*. They are declined as follows:—

Sing.	M.	F.	N.	M.	F.	N.
N., V.	lēvis	lēve	lēve	ācer	ācris	ācre
GEN.	levīs	levīs	levīs	ācris	ācris	ācris
DAT.	levī	levī	levī	ācrī	ācrī	ācrī
ACC.	levem	leve	leve	ācrem	ācrem	ācre
ABL.	levī	levī	levī	ācrī	ācrī	ācrī
Plur.						
N., V.	levēs	levia	levia	ācrēs	ācrēs	ācria
GEN.	levium	levium	levium	ācrium	ācrium	ācrium
DAT.	levibus	levibus	levibus	ācribus	ācribus	ācribus
ACC.	levēs (īa)	levia	levia	ācrēs (īa)	ācrēs (īa)	ācria
ABL.	levibus	levibus	levibus	ācribus	ācribus	ācribus

a. The following stems in *-ri* have the masc. nom. in *er*: *acer*, *alacer*, *campester*, *celeber*, *equester*, *palūster*, *pedester*, *puter*, *salūber*, *silvester*, *terrester*, *volūcer*. Also, *celer*, *celēris*, *celēre*; and, in certain phrases, the names of months in *-ber* (compare §1. b).

NOTE.—This formation is comparatively late, and hence, in the poets, and in early Latin, either the masculine or the feminine form of these adjectives was used for both genders. In others, as *illustris*, *lugubris*, *mediocris*, *muliebris*, there is no separate masculine form.

d in *aliud*. The *i* in the genitive *-ius*, though long, may be made short in verse; and *alterius* is generally accented on the antepenult. In compounds—as *alterūter*—sometimes both parts are declined, sometimes only the latter.

*b.* CASE-FORMS. These adjectives, as true *i*-stems, retain *i* in the ablative singular, the neuter-plural *ia*, the genitive plural *ium*, and often in the accusative plural *is*. For metrical reasons, an ablative in *e* sometimes occurs in poetry.

*c.* When *celer* is used as an adjective, it has the regular genitive plural in *ium*; as a noun, denoting a military rank, it has *celtrum*; as a proper name, it has the ablative in *e*.

*d.* ADVERBS are formed from adjectives of the third declension with the ending *ter* or *iter*: as, *leviter*, *lightly*; *prūdentē*, *wisely*; *ācritē*, *eagerly* (see Chap. VII).

85. The remaining adjectives of the third declension (except comparatives) are consonant-stems, but have the form of *i*-stems in the ablative singular *i*, the plural neuter *ia*, and the genitive *ium*. In other cases they follow the rule of consonant-stems.

*a.* In adjectives of consonant-stems (except comparatives) the nominative singular is alike for all genders: hence they are called *adjectives of one termination*.<sup>1</sup> Except in the case of stems in *l* and *r*, it is formed from the stem by adding *s* (compare 44): as,

Sing.	M., F.	<i>fierce.</i>	N.	M., F.	<i>needy.</i>	N.
N., V.		<b>atrōx</b>			<b>egēs</b>	
GEN.		<b>atrōcis</b>			<b>egentis</b>	
DAT.		<b>atrōcī</b>			<b>egenti</b>	
ACC.	<b>atrōcem</b>		<b>atrōx</b>	<b>egentem</b>		<b>egēs</b>
ABL.	<b>atrōcī or atrōce</b>			<b>egenti or egente</b>		
Plur.						
N., V.	<b>atrōcēs</b>		<b>atrōcia</b>	<b>egentēs</b>		<b>egentia</b>
GEN.		<b>atrōcium</b>			<b>egentium</b>	
DAT.		<b>atrōcibus</b>			<b>egentibus</b>	
ACC.	<b>atrōcēs (īs)</b>		<b>atrōcia</b>	<b>egentēs (īs)</b>		<b>egentia</b>
ABL.		<b>atrōcibus</b>			<b>egentibus</b>	

<sup>1</sup> The regular feminine of these adjectives, by analogy of cognate languages, would end in *ia*: this form does not appear in Latin adjectives, but is found in the abstracts *āmentia*, *dēsidia*, *sōcordia*, &c., and in proper names, as *Flōrentia* (cf. Greek φέρουσα for φερουσα-ια). The neuter would regularly have in the nominative and accusative singular the simple stem as *caput*, *cor(d)*, *allec*, Greek φέρον(τ); but in all except liquid stems, the masc. form in *s* has forced itself not only upon the neuter nominative, but upon the accusative also, where it is wholly abnormal.

b. Other examples are the following : —

Sing.	M., F. <i>going</i> .	N.	M., F., <i>equal</i> .	N.	M., F. <i>headlong</i> .	N.
N., V.	iēns		pār		praiceps	
GEN.	euntia		paria		praecipitia	
DAT.	euntī		parī		praecipitī	
ACC.	euntem	iēns	parem	pār	praecipitem	praeceps
ABL.	eunte (ī)		parī		praecipitī	
<b>Plur.</b>						
N., A., V.	euntēs	euntia	parēs	paria	praecipitēs	praecipitia
GEN.	euntium		parium		praecipitium	
D., ABL.	euntibus		paribus		praecipitibus	

Sing.	M., F. <i>rich</i> .	N.	M., F. <i>fertile</i> .	N.	M., F. <i>old</i> .	N.
N., V.	dīves		ūber		vetus	
GEN.	divitis		ūberis		veteris	
DAT.	divitī		ūberī		veterī	
ACC.	dīvitē	dīves	ūberē	ūber	veterē	vetus
ABL.	divite		ūbere		vetere	

<b>Plur.</b>						
N., A., V.	dīvitēs	[dītia]	ūberēs	ūbera	veterēs	vetera
GEN.	divitum		ūberum		veterum	
D., ABL.	divitibus		ūberibus		veteribus	

c. A few of these words, used as nouns, have a feminine form in a : as, *clienta*, *hospita*, with the appellative *Juno Sospita*.

### 3. — Comparatives.

86. Comparatives are declined as follows : —

Sing.	M., F. <i>better</i> .	N.	M., F. <i>more</i> .	N.
N., V.	melior	melius	—	plūs
GEN.	melioris		—	plūris
DAT.	meliorī		—	—
ACC.	meliorē	melius	—	plūs
ABL.	meliore or meliorī		—	plūre
<b>Plur.</b>				
N., V.	meliorēs	meliora	plūrēs	plūra
GEN.	meliorum		plūrium	
DAT.	melioribus		plūribus	
ACC.	meliorēs (is)	meliora	plūrēs (is)	plūra
ABL.	melioribus		plūribus	

a. The stem of comparatives properly ended in *os*, which became *or* in all cases except the neuter singular (N., A., V.), where *s* is retained, and *o* is changed to *ū* (compare *honōr, ōris* ; *corpus, ōris*). Thus they appear to have two terminations.

b. The neuter singular accusative of comparatives is used as an Adverb : as, *melius*, *better* ; *ācrius*, *more keenly*.

c. The neuter singular *plus* is used only as a noun; the genitive (rarely ablative), as an expression of value. The dative is not found in classic use. Its derivative, *complūres*, *several*, has sometimes the neuter plural *complūria*. All other comparatives are declined like *mellor*.

#### Case-Forms.

87. In adjectives of consonant stems the following case-forms are to be remarked:—

a. Their ablative singular commonly ends in *ī*; but, when used as nouns (as, *superstes*, *survivor*), they have *e*. Participles in *ns* used as such (especially in the ablative absolute), or as nouns, regularly have *e*; but as adjectives, regularly *ī*. So adjectives in *ns*, as in the phrase, *me imprudente*.

b. In the following, *e* is the regular form of the ablative:—*caeles*, *compos*, *dēses*, *dīves*, *hospes*, *pauper*, *particeps*, *princeps*, *superstes*, *supplex*; also in patrials (see § 54. 3), with stems in *āt-*, *īt-*, *nt-*, *rt-*, when used as nouns, and sometimes as adjectives.

c. The genitive plural ends commonly in *ium*; the accusative often ends in *is*, even in comparatives, which are less inclined to the *i*-declension.

d. In the following, the genitive plural ends in *um*:—

1. Always in *dīves*, *compos*, *inops*, *praepes*, *supplex*, and compounds of nouns which have *um*, as *quadru-pes*, *bi-color*.

2. Sometimes, in poetry, of participles in *ns*.

e. In *vetus* (*ēris*), *pubes* (*ēris*), *uber* (*ēris*), which did not become *i*-stems, the forms *e*, *a*, *um*, are regular; but *uber* and *vetus* rarely have the ablative in *ī*.

f. Several adjectives are declined in more than one form: as, *gracilis* (*us*), *hilaris* (*us*), *inermis* (*us*). A few are indeclinable or defective: as, *damnas* (*esto*, *sunto*), *frugi* (dat. of advantage), *exspes* (only nom.), *exlex* (nom. and acc.), *mactus* (nom. and voc.), *nequam* (indecl.), *pernox* (*pernocte*), *potis*, *pote* (indecl. or M. F. *potis*, N. *pote*), *primōris*, *semināci*, &c.

#### Special Uses.

88. The following special uses are to be observed:—

a. Many adjectives have acquired the meaning and construction of nouns: as, *amicus*, *a friend*; *aequālis*, *a contemporary*; *mājōres*, *ancestors* (see Note p. 37).

b. Many adjectives, from the signification, are used only in the masculine or feminine, and may be called *adjectives of common*

*gender*. Such are *adulescēns*, *youthful*; *dōses*, *Idis*, *slothful*; *inops*, *ōpis*, *poor*; *aspes*, *Itis*, *safe*. So *senex* and *juvenis* may be called *masculine adjectives*.

*c*. Many nouns may be also used as adjectives (compare Syntax of adjectives): as, *pedes*, *a footman* or *on foot*; especially nouns in *tor* (M.) and *trix* (F.), denoting the *agent*: as *victor exerōtus*, *the conquering army*; *victrix causa*, *the winning cause*.

*d*. Certain cases of many adjectives are regularly used as Adverbs. These are, the accusative and ablative of the neuter singular: as, *multum*, *multo*, *much*; the neuter of comparatives (see 86. *b*): as, *mellus*, *better*; *lōvius*, *more lightly*. Adverbs ending in *ē* from *o*-stems, and *ter* from *i*-stems, were also originally cases: as, *carē*, *dearly*; *leviter*, *lightly*; *ācerimē*, *most eagerly*.

## COMPARISON.

### Regular Comparison.

89. The Comparative is formed by adding, for the nominative, *ior* (neuter *ius*<sup>1</sup>), and the Superlative by adding *issimus* (*a*, *um*) to the stem of the Positive, which loses its final vowel: as,

*cārus*, *dear*; *cārior*, *dearer*; *cārissimus*, *dearest*.

*lōvis*, *light*; *levior*, *lighter*; *levissimus*, *lightest*.

*fēlix*, *happy*; *fēlicior*, *happier*; *fēlicissimus*, *happiest*.

*hebes*, *dull*; *hebetior*, *duller*; *hebetissimus*, *dullest*.

*a*. Adjectives in *er* form the superlative by adding *-rimus* to the nominative; the comparative is regular: as,

*ācer*, *keen*; *ācrior*, *ācerimus*;

*miser*, *wretched*; *miserior*, *miserrimus*.

So *vetus* (*veteris*) has superlative *veterrimus*, from the old form *veter*; and, rarely, *māturrimus* (also *mātūrissimus*) is formed from *mātūrus*. For comparative of *vetus*, *vetustior* is used.

*b*. The following in *lis* add *-limus* to the stem clipped of its vowel: *facilis*, *difficilis*, *similis*, *dissimilis*, *gracilis*, *humilis* (comparative regular): as, *facilis*, *easy*; *facilior*, *facillimus*.

<sup>1</sup> The comparative suffix (earlier *ios*) is the same as the Greek *ιωv*, or the Skr. *iyans*. That of the superlative (*issimus*) is a double form, but what is the combination is not certain; perhaps it stands for *ios-timus* (comparative and superlative), or possibly for *ist-timus* (two superlatives). The endings *-limus* and *-rimus* are formed by assimilation from *-timus* and *-simus*. The comparative and superlative are thus formed upon new stems, and are not to be strictly regarded as forms of inflection.



c. Compounds in *-dīcus* (*saying*), *-fīcus* (*doing*), *-vōlus* (*willing*), take the forms of corresponding participles in *na*, which were anciently used as adjectives : as,

*maledīcus*, *slanderous* ; *maledicentior*, *maledicentissimus*.

*malevolus*, *spiteful* ; *malevolentior*, *malevolentissimus*.

d. Adjectives in *us* preceded by a vowel (except *u*) rarely have forms of comparison, but are compared by the adverbs *magis*, *more* ; *maxime*, *most* : as,

*idōneus*, *fit* ; *magis idoneus*, *maxime idoneus*.

Most derivatives in *-īcus*, *-īdus*, *ālis*, *-āris*, *īlis*, *ūlus*, *-undus*, *-timus*, *-īnus*, *-īvus*, *-ōrus*, with compounds, as *degener*, *inops*, are also compared with *magis* and *maxime*. *Pius* has *piissimus*.

e. Participles when used as adjectives are regularly compared : as, *patientior*, *patientissimus* ; *apertior*, *apertissimus*.

NOTE. — Many adjectives — as *aureus*, *golden* — are from their meaning incapable of comparison ; but each language has its own usage in this respect. Thus *niger*, *black*, and *candidus*, *white*, are compared ; but not *ater* or *albus*, meaning *absolute black* or *white* (except that Plautus once has *atrior*).

f. A form of Diminutive is made upon the stem of some comparatives : as, *mājusculus*, *somewhat larger*.

#### Irregular and Defective Comparison.

90. Several adjectives are compared from different stems, or contain irregular forms : as,

*bonus*, *melior*, *optimus*, *good*, *better*, *best*.

*mālus*, *pějor* (*pějior*), *pessimus*, *bad*, *worse*, *worst*.

*magnus*, *māior* (*māior*), *maximus*, *great*, *greater*, *greatest*.

*parvus*, *minor*, *minimus*, *small*, *less*, *least*.

*multus*, *plūs* (N.), *plurimus*, *much*, *more*, *most*.

*multi*, *plūres*, *plūrimi*, *many*, *more*, *most*.

*nēquam* (indecl.), *nequior*, *nequissimus*, *worthless*.

*frūgi* (indecl.), *frugālior*, *frugālissimus*, *useful*, *worthy*.

*dexter*, *dexterior*, *dextimus*, *on the right*, *handy*.

91. The following are formed from roots or stems not used as adjectives : —

*cis*, *citrā* : *citerior*, *citimus*, *hither*, *hithermost*.

*in*, *intrā* : *interior*, *intimus*, *inner*, *inmost*.

*prae*, *prō* : *prior*, *prīmus*, *former*, *first*.

*prope* : *propior*, *proximus*, *nearer*, *next*.

*ultrā* : *ulterior*, *ultimus*, *farther*, *farthest*.

a. Of the following the positive forms — themselves originally comparative — are rare, except when used as nouns (generally in the plural) : —

**exterus**, exterior, **extrēmus** (extimus), *outer, outmost.*

**inferus**, inferior, **infinus** (imus), *lower, lowest.*

**posterus**, posterior, **postrēmus** (postumus), *latter, last.*

**superus**, superior, **suprēmus** or **summus**, *higher, highest.*

The plurals, **exteri**, *foreigners*; **posterī**, *posterity*; **superī**, *the heavenly gods*; **inferī**, *those below*, are common.

b. From **juvenis**, *youth*, **senex**, *old man*, are formed the comparatives **jūnior**, *younger*, **senior**, *older*. Instead of the superlative, the phrase **minimus** or **maximus nātū** is used (*natu* being often understood), as also **major** and **minor** in the comparative.

c. In the following, one of the forms of comparison is wanting : —

1. The positive is wanting in **deterior**, **deterimus**; **dcior**, **dcissimus**; **potior**, **potissimus**.

2. The Comparative is wanting in **bellus**, **caesius**, **falsus**, **fidus**, **inclutus** (or **inclitus**), **invictus**, **invitus**, **novus**, **pius**, **sacer**, **vafer**, **vetus**.

3. The Superlative is wanting in **actuōsus**, **agrestis**, **alacer**, **arcānus**, **caecus**, **diūturnus**, **extilis**, **ingens**, **jejūnus**, **longinquus**, **obliquus**, **optimus**, **proclivis**, **propinquus**, **satur**, **segnis**, **sērus**, **supīnus**, **surdus**, **taciturnus**, **tempestivus**, **teres**, **vicinus**, and some in **illa**.

#### Comparison of Adverbs.

92. Adverbs formed from adjectives are compared as follows (see 81. b, 84. d) : as,

**cārus**, *dear* : **cārē**, **cārius**, **cārissimē**.

**miser**, *wretched* : **miserē** (miseriter), **miserius**, **miserrimē**.

**levis**, *light* : **leviter**, **levius**, **levissimē**.

**audax**, *bold* : **audacter** (audāciter), **audācius**, **audācissimē**.

**bonus**, *good* : **bēnē**, **mēlius**, **optimē**.

**malus**, *bad* : **malē**, **pējus** (pēius), **pessimē**.

Also, in like manner —

**diū**, *long* (in time) : **diūtiūs**, **diūtissimē**.

**potius**, *rather*; **potissimum**, *first* (or *chief*) of all.

**saepo**, *often* : **saepius**, **saepissimē**.

**satis**, *enough*; **satius**, *preferable*.

**sēcus**, *otherwise*; **sēcius**, *worse*.

**multum** (multo), **magis**, **maximē**, *much, more, most*.

**parum**, **minus**, **minimē**.

## Signification.

93. Besides their regular signification, the forms of comparison are used as follows:—

a. The Comparative denotes a *considerable* or *excessive* degree of a quality: as, *brevior, rather short*; *audācior, too bold*. It is used instead of the superlative where only two are spoken of.

b. The Superlative (of eminence) often denotes a *very high degree* of a quality without a distinct comparison: as, *maximus numerus, a very great number*. With *quam* or *vel* it means the highest degree: as, *quam plurimi, as many as possible*; *quam maxime potest (quam potest), as much as can be*.

c. With *quisque*, the superlative has a peculiar signification: thus the phrase *ditissimus quisque* means, *all the richest*; *primus quisque, all the first* (each in his order).<sup>1</sup> Two superlatives with *quisque* imply a proportion: as,

*sapientissimus quisque aequissimo animo moritur, the wisest men die with the greatest equanimity* (Cat. Maj. 23).

d. A high degree of a quality is denoted by such adverbs as *admōdum, valde, very*; or by *per* or *prae* in composition: as, *permagnus, very great*; *praealtus, very high (or deep)*.

e. A low degree is indicated by *sub* in composition: as, *subrūsticus, rather countrified*; or by *minus, not very*; *minime, not at all*; *parum, not enough*; *nōn satis, not much*.

f. The comparatives *mājores* and *minōres* have the special signification of *ancestors* and *descendants*.

## NUMERALS.

## Cardinal and Ordinal.

94. Cardinal Numbers answer to the interrogative *quot, how many?* Ordinal Numbers<sup>2</sup> to *quotus, which in order, or one of how many?* They are as follows:—

<sup>1</sup> As in taking one by one off a pile, each piece is uppermost when you take it.

<sup>2</sup> The Ordinals (except *secundus, tertius, octāvus*) are formed by means of the same suffixes as superlatives. Thus *decimus* (compare the form *infimus*) may be regarded as the last of a series of ten; *primus* is a superlative of *pro*; the forms in *-tus* (*quartus, quintus, sextus*) may be compared with the corresponding Greek forms in *-τος* and *πρῶτος*, superlative of *πρῶ*; *nōnus* is contracted from *novimus*; while the others have the regular superlative ending *-simus*. Of the exceptions, *secundus* is a participle of *sequor*; and *alter* is a comparative form (compare *ρεῖος* in Greek). The multiples of ten are compounds of the unit with a fragment of *decem*: as, *viginti = dui-ginti (dui-decem-ti)*.

CARDINAL.	ORDINAL.	ROMAN NUMERALS.
1. ūnus, ūna, ūnum, <i>one</i> .	prīmus, a, um, <i>first</i> .	I.
2. duo, duae, duo, <i>two</i> .	secundus (alter), <i>second</i> .	II.
3. trēs, tria, <i>three, &amp;c.</i>	tertius, <i>third</i> .	III.
4. quattuor	quartus	IV.
5. quinque	quintus	V.
6. sex	sextus	VI.
7. septem	septimus	VII.
8. octo	octāvus	VIII.
9. novem	nōnus	IX.
10. decem	decimus	X.
11. undecim	undecimus	XI.
12. duodecim	duodecimus	XII.
13. tredecim	tertius decimus	XIII.
14. quattuordecim	quartus decimus	XIV.
15. quindecim	quintus decimus	XV.
16. sēdecim	sextus decimus	XVI.
17. septendecim	septimus decimus	XVII.
18. duodēviginti (octodecim)	duodēvicēsimus	XVIII.
19. undēviginti (novendecim)	undēvicēsimus	XIX.
20. vīginti	vīcēsimus (vīgesimus)	XX.
21. vīginti unus <i>or</i> unus et viginti	vīcēsimus prīmus, etc.	XXI.
30. trīgintā	trīcēsimus	XXX.
40. quadrāgintā	quadrāgēsimus	XL.
50. quinquāgintā	quinquāgēsimus	L.
60. sexāgintā	sexāgēsimus	LX.
70. septuāgintā	septuāgēsimus	LXX.
80. octōgintā	octōgēsimus	LXXX.
90. nōnāgintā	nōnāgēsimus	XC.
100. centum	centēsimus	C.
200. ducenti, ae, a	ducentēsimus	CC.
300. trecenti	trecentēsimus	CCC.
400. quadringenti	quadringentēsimus	CCCC.
500. quingenti	quingentēsimus	IC, <i>or</i> D.
600. sexcenti	sexcentēsimus	DC.
700. septingenti	septingentēsimus	DCC.
800. octingenti	octingentēsimus	DCCC.
900. nongenti	nongentēsimus	DCCCC.
1000. mille	millēsimus	CIC, <i>or</i> M.
5000. quinque millia (milia)	quinqūēs millēsimus	ICD.
10,000. decem millia (milia)	deciēs millēsimus	CCICD.
100,000. centum millia (milia)	centiēs millēsimus	CCCICD.

a. For the inflection of *finus*, see 83. a. It often has the meaning of *same* or *only*. It is used in the plural in this sense, as also to agree with a plural noun of a singular meaning: as, *finā castra, one camp*. So *fini et alteri, one party and the other*.

b. *Duo*,<sup>1</sup> *two*, and *ambo, both*, are thus declined:—

NOM.	duo	duae	duo
GEN.	duōrum	duārum	duōrum
DAT.	duōbus	duābus	duōbus
ACC.	duōs (duo)	duās	duo
ABL.	duōbus	duābus	duōbus

c. *Trēs, tria, three*, is an i-stem, and is regularly declined like the plural of *levis* (see 84). The other cardinal numbers, up to *centum* (100), are indeclinable. The forms *octodecim, novendecim*, are rare, *undēviginti, duodēviginti* (and some higher) being used.

d. The hundreds, up to 1000, and all the ordinals, are o-stems, and are regularly declined like the plural of *bonus*.

e. *Mille, a thousand*, is an indeclinable adjective. In the plural (*millia* or *millia, thousands*), it is used as a neuter noun, with a genitive plural: as, *cum duobus milibus hominum*.<sup>2</sup>

NOTE. — The singular *mille* is also sometimes found as a noun in the nominative and accusative: as, *mille hominum misit*; but in the other cases only in connection with the same case of *millia*: as, *cum octo millibus peditum, mille equitum*.

#### Distributives.

95. Distributive Numerals are declined like the plural of *bonus*. They answer to the interrogative *quoteni, how many of each, or at a time*: as,

1. singuli, <i>one by one</i> .	13. terni dēni, &c.	200. ducēni
2. bīni, <i>two-and-two</i> .	18. duodēvicēni	300. trecēni
3. terni, trīni	19. undēvicēni	400. quadingēni
4. quaterni	20. vicēni	500. quingēni
5. quīni	30. tricēni	600. sēcēni
6. sēni	40. quadrāgēni	700. septingēni
7. septēni	50. quinquāgēni	800. octingēni
8. octōni	60. sexāgēni	900. nongēni
9. novēni	70. septuāgēni	1000. millēni
10. dēni	80. octogēni	2000. bīna millia
11. undēni	90. nōnāgēni	10,000. dēna millia
12. duodēni	100. centēni	100,000. centēna millia

<sup>1</sup> This form in -o is a remnant of the *dual number*, which was lost in Latin, but is found in cognate languages.

<sup>2</sup> Or, in poetry, *cum bis mille hominibus*.

Distributives are used as follows:—

a. In the meaning of *so many apiece* or *on each side*: as, *singula singulis, one apiece*; *agri septēna jugera plēbi dīvisa sunt*, i. e. *seven acres to each citizen*.

b. Instead of Cardinals, when a noun is plural in form but singular in meaning: as, *bīna castra, two camps* (*duo castra* would mean *two forts*). But the plural *ūni* is used (instead of *singuli*), and *trīni* (not *terni*), to signify *one* and *three* (See 94. a).

c. In multiplication: as, *bis bīna, twice two*; *ter septēnis ūtiōbus, in thrice seven days*, i. e. *in three weeks*.

d. By the poets instead of cardinal numbers, particularly where *pairs* or *sets* are spoken of: as, *bīna hastilia, two shafts* (each person usually carrying two).

#### Numeral Adverbs.

96. The Numeral Adverbs answer to the interrogative *quotiōns* (*quotiēs*), *how often*. They are used, in combination with  *mille*, to express the higher numbers: as, *ter et tricies* (*centena millia*) *sestertium*, 3,300,000 sesterces.

1. semel, <i>once</i> .	12. duodecies	40. quadrāgies
2. bis, <i>twice</i> .	13. terdecies	50. quinquāgies
3. ter, <i>thrice</i> .	14. quaterdecies	60. sexāgies
4. quater	15. quindecies	70. septuāgies
5. quinquies (ens)	16. sēdecies	80. octōgies
6. sexies	17. septiesdecies	90. nōnāgies
7. septies	18. duodēvicies	100. centies
8. octies	19. undēvicies	200. ducenties
9. novies	20. vicies	300. trecenties
10. decies	21. semel et vicies, &c.	1000. millies
11. undecies	30. trīcies	10,000. decies millies

97. The adjectives *simplex* (single), *duplex*, *triplex*, *quadru-*, *quincu-*, *septem-*, *decem-*, *centu-*, *sesqui-* ( $1\frac{1}{2}$ ), *multi-plex*, are called Multiplicatives. They are compounds of *-plex* (as in English *two-fold*); and are inflected as adjectives of one termination.

Other derivatives are—

a. PROPORTIONALS: *duplus*, *triplus*, &c., *twice* or *thrice as great*.

b. TEMPORALS: *bīmus*, *trīmus*, *of two* or *three years' age*; *biennis*, *triennis*, *lasting two* or *three years*; *bimestris*, *trimestris*, *of two* or *three months*; *biduum*, *biennium*, *a period of two days* or *years*.

c. PARTITIVES: *bīnārius*, *ternārius*, *of two* or *three parts*.

d. FRACTIONS: *bīmidia pars* (*dimidium*), *a half*; *tertia pars*, *a third*.

e. The following: *ūnio*, *unity*; *bīnio*, *the two* (of dice); *bīnārius*, *consisting of two*; *primānus*, *of the first* (legion); *primārius*, *of the first rank*; *dēnārius*, *a sum of 10 asses*; *bīnus* (*distrib.*), *double*, &c.

## Chapter V.—Pronouns.

## Personal and Reflexive.

98. The Personal Pronouns of the *first person* are **ego, I, nos, we**; of the *second person*, **tu, thou, vos, ye or you**.

	FIRST PERSON.		SECOND PERSON.	
NOM.	<b>ego, I</b>	<b>nōs, we</b>	<b>tū, thou</b>	<b>vōs, ye or you</b>
GEN.	<b>mei, of me</b>	<b>nōstrum (trī), of us</b>	<b>tuī</b>	<b>vestrum (trī)</b>
DAT.	<b>mihi, to me</b>	<b>nōbīs, to us</b>	<b>tibi</b>	<b>vōbīs</b>
ACC.	<b>mē, me</b>	<b>nōs, us</b>	<b>tē</b>	<b>vōs</b>
VOC.	—	—	<b>tū</b>	<b>vōs</b>
ABL.	<b>mē, by me</b>	<b>nōbīs, by us</b>	<b>tē</b>	<b>vōbīs</b>

a. These pronouns are also used reflexively: as, **ipse te nimium laudas, you praise yourself too much**.

b. The personal pronouns of the *third person* — *he, she, it, they* — are wanting in Latin, a demonstrative being sometimes used.

c. The Reflexive pronoun of the third person (referring to the subject of the sentence or clause, and hence used only in the oblique cases) is the same in the singular and plural: viz.,

Gen.	<b>sui, of himself, herself, themselves.</b>
Dat.	<b>sibi, to</b> " " "
Acc.	<b>sē (sēsē)</b> " " "
Abl.	<b>sē (sēsē), by</b> " " "

d. The plural **nos** is often used for the singular *I*; the plural **vos** never for the singular *tu*.<sup>1</sup>

99. In the meaning and use of these Pronouns it is to be observed that —

a. For the genitive of possession (Subjective), the Adjectives **meus, tuus, suus, noster, vester (voster)**, are to be used, declined as in 81. 82. But **meus** has the vocative singular masculine **mi** (rarely **meus**).

b. The genitives **nostrum, vestrum**, are the contracted genitive plural of the possessives **noster, vester**. (So in early and late Latin we find **ūna veſtrārum**.) They are used *partitively*: as,

**ūnusquisque nostrum, each one of us.**

<sup>1</sup> There is an old form of genitive in **is**: as **mis, tis, sis**; also an accusative and ablative **med, ted, sed**. The earlier form **vostrum, vestri**, is sometimes used — **vestrum, vestri**.

c. The genitives *mei, tui, sui, nostri, vestri*, are the genitive singular of the neuter possessives, *meum*, &c., meaning *my, your, our, interest or concern*, and chiefly used *objectively*: as,

*memor sis nostri, be mindful of us.*

d. The reciprocal (*each other*) is expressed by *inter se* or *alter . . . alterum*: as, *inter se amant, they love each other.*

e. The preposition *cum*, *with*, is joined enclitically with the ablative of these pronouns: as, *tecum loquitur, he talks with you.*

f. To the personal (and sometimes to the adjective) pronouns enclitics are joined for emphasis: — *met* to all except *tu* (nom.); — *-te* to *tu* (*tute*, also *tutimes*); — *-pte* to the ablative singular of the adjectives, and in early Latin to the others: as,

*vosmetipsos prōditis, you betray your own very selves.*  
*suapte pondere, by its own weight.*

#### Demonstrative.

100. The Demonstrative Pronouns are *hic, this; is, ille, iste, that*; with the Intensive *ipse, self*, and *idem, same*.<sup>1</sup>

a. *Ille* is a later form of *ollus* (*olle*), which is sometimes used by the poets; a genitive singular in *i, ae, i*, occurs in *ille* and *iste*.

b. *Iste* is sometimes found in early writers in the form *ste*, &c., with the entire loss of the first syllable; and the *i* of *ipse* and *ille* is very often found *shortened*.

c. *Ipse* is compounded of *is* and *-pse* (for *pte*, from the same root as *potis*), meaning *self*. The former part was originally declined, as in *reāpse* (for *rē eāpse*), *in fact*. An old form *ipsus* occurs. *Idem* is the demonstrative *is* with the affix *-dem*.

101. These demonstratives are used either with nouns as Adjectives, or alone as Pronouns; and, from their signification, cannot (except *ipse*) have a vocative. They are thus declined: —

<sup>1</sup> These demonstratives are combinations of *o* and *i*-stems, which are not clearly distinguishable. *Hic* is a compound of the stem *ho-* with the demonstrative *ce*, which appears in full in early Latin (*hice*), and when followed by the enclitic *-ne* (*hicine*). In most of the cases *ce* is shortened to *c*, and in many lost; but it is appended for emphasis to those that do not regularly retain it (*hujusce*). In early Latin *c* alone is retained in some of these (*horunc*). *Ille* and *iste* are sometimes found with the same enclitic: *illic, illase, illuc*; also *illoc* (acc. or abl.: 101. a).



Sing.	M.	F.	N.	M.	F.	N.
NOM.	hic	haec	hōc, <i>this</i> .	is	ea	id, <i>that</i> .
GEN.	hūjus	hūjus	hūjus	ējus	ējus	ējus
DAT.	huic	huic	huic	eī	eī	eī
ACC.	hunc	hanc	hōc	eum	eam	id
ABL.	hōc	hāc	hōc	eō	eā	eō
Plur.						
NOM.	hī	hae	haec, <i>these</i> .	ii (eī)	eae	ea, <i>those</i> .
GEN.	hōrum	hārum	hōrum	eōrum	eārum	eōrum
DAT.	his	his	his		eīs or iīs	
ACC.	hōs	hās	haec	eōs	eās	ea
ABL.	his	his	his		eīs or iīs	

NOTE. — For the dative and ablative plural of *hic* the old forms *hibus* and *ibus* are sometimes found ; also (rarely) *haec* for *hae*.

Sing.	M.	F.	N.	M.	F.	N.
NOM.	ille	illa	illud, <i>that</i> .	ipse	ipsa	ipsum, <i>self</i> .
GEN.	illius	illius	illius	ipsius	ipsius	ipsius
DAT.	illi	illi	illi	ipsi	ipsi	ipsi
ACC.	illum	illam	illud	ipsum	ipsam	ipsum
ABL.	illō	illā	illō	ipsō	ipsā	ipsō
Plur.						
N., V.	illi	illae	illa	ipsi	ipsae	ipsa
GEN.	illōrum	illārum	illōrum	ipsōrum	ipsārum	ipsōrum
DAT.	illis	illis	illis	ipsis	ipsis	ipsis
ACC.	illōs	illās	illa	ipsōs	ipsās	ipsa
ABL.	illis	illis	illis	ipsis	ipsis	ipsis

Sing.	<i>the same.</i>			Plur.
N. idem	eādem	Idem	idem (ei-)	eādem eādem
G. ejusdem	ejusdem	ejusdem	eōrundem	eārundem eōrundem
D. eidem	eidem	eidem		eīdem or iīdem
A. eundem	eandem	Idem	eōsdem	eāsdem eādem
A. eōdem	eādem	eōdem		eīsdem or iīdem

a. *Iste, ista, istud, that* (yonder), is declined like *ille*. By combination with the demonstrative -ce,<sup>1</sup> *ille* and *iste* have the following forms : —

Sing.	M.	F.	N.	M.	F.	N.
NOM.	illō	illāc	illōc (illūc)	istō (isthic)	istāc	istōc (istūc)
Acc.	illunc	illanc	illōc (illūc)	istunc	istanc	istōc (istūc)
ABL.	illōc	illāc	illōc	istōc	istāc	istōc
Plur.						
NOM. or Acc.		illāc			istāc	

<sup>1</sup> The intensive *ce* is also found in numerous combinations : as, *hujusce, huncce, hōrunce, hārunce, hosce, hisce, illiusce, iisce* ; also with the interrogative -NE, in *hocine, hōcine, istucine, illicine*, &c. The enclitic *se* is found in the forms *eapse* (nom.), *oumpse, eampse, eōpse, eāpse* (abl.) ; also in *redāpse* (*rē ipsā*).

*b.* The normal forms *illi, isti* (gen.), and *illae, istae* (dat.), are found ; also the nominative plural *istaece, illaece* (for *istae, illae*).

*c.* The forms *iidem, iisdem*, are often written *idem, isdem*. Obsolete forms are *eae* (dat. for *ei*), and *eabus* or *ibus* (for *iis*).

*d.* By composition with *ecce* or *ēn*, *behold!* are found *eccum, eccam, eccos, eccas; eccillum, ellum, ellam, ellos, ellas; eccistam*. These forms are dramatic and colloquial.

*e.* The combinations *hujusmodi (hujuscemodi), ejusmodi, &c.*, are used as indeclinable adjectives, equivalent to *tālis, such*: as. *res ejusmodi, such a thing* (a thing of that sort: compare 215).

**102.** In the use of these demonstratives it is to be observed that—

*a. Hic* is used of what is *near the speaker* (in time, place, thought, or on the written page); hence called the *demonstrative of the first person*. It is sometimes used of the speaker himself; sometimes for “the latter” of two things mentioned; more rarely for “the former.”

*b. Ille* is used of what is *remote* (in time, &c.); hence called the *demonstrative of the third person*. It is sometimes used to mean “the former;” also (usually following its noun) of what is *famous or well-known*; often (especially the neuter *illud*) to mean “the following.”

*c. Iste* is used of what is *between the two others* in remoteness: often in allusion to the person addressed,—hence called the *demonstrative of the second person*. It especially refers to one's opponent (in court, &c.), and frequently implies contempt.

*d. Is* is a weaker demonstrative than the others, not denoting any special object, but referring to one just mentioned, or to be explained by a relative. It is used oftener than the others as a personal pronoun (see 98. *b*); and is often merely a correlative to the relative *qui*: as, *eum quem, one whom; eum consulem qui non dubitet* (Cic.), *a consul who will not hesitate*.

*e. Ipse* may be used with a personal pronoun of either person, as *nos ipsi (nosmetipsi), we ourselves*; or independently (the verb containing the pronoun, or the context implying it), as *ipsi adestis, you are yourselves present*; or with a noun, as *ipsi fontes* (Virg.), *the very fountains*.

NOTE. — In English, the pronouns *himself, &c.*, are used both intensively (as, *he will come himself*) and reflexively (as, *he will kill himself*): in Latin the former would be translated *ipse*; the latter *se*, or *sece*.

## Relative, Interrogative, and Indefinite.

NOTE. — The Relative, Interrogative, and Indefinite Pronouns are originally of the same Stem, and the forms for the most part are the same (compare 103 with 104) ; viz., *qui, quis*<sup>1</sup> (*who, who?* *any*), with their compounds and derivatives.

103. The relative pronoun *qui* is thus declined : —

	SINGULAR.			<i>who, which.</i>	PLURAL.		
NOM.	<i>quī</i>	<i>quae</i>	<i>quod</i>	<i>quī</i>	<i>quae</i>	<i>quae</i>	
GEN.	<i>cūjus</i>	<i>cūjus</i>	<i>cūjus</i>	<i>quōrum</i>	<i>quārum</i>	<i>quōrum</i>	
DAT.	<i>cui</i>	<i>cui</i>	<i>cui</i>	<i>quibus</i>	<i>quibus</i>	<i>quibus</i>	
ACC.	<i>quem</i>	<i>quam</i>	<i>quod</i>	<i>quōs</i>	<i>quās</i>	<i>quae</i>	
ABL.	<i>quō</i>	<i>quā</i>	<i>quō</i>	<i>quibus</i>	<i>quibus</i>	<i>quibus</i>	

104. The interrogative or indefinite *quis (qui)* is declined in the singular as follows (plural as above) : —

	<i>who?</i>	<i>which?</i>	<i>any.</i>
NOM.	<i>quis (quī)</i>	<i>quae</i>	<i>quid (quod)</i>
GEN.	<i>cūjus</i>	<i>cūjus</i>	<i>cūjus</i>
DAT.	<i>cui</i>	<i>cui</i>	<i>cui</i>
ACC.	<i>quem</i>	<i>quam</i>	<i>quid (quod)</i>
ABL.	<i>quō</i>	<i>quā</i>	<i>quō</i>

CASE FORMS. — *a.* The Relative has always *quī* and *quod* in the nominative singular. The Interrogative and Indefinite have *quis, quid*, *substantive*, and *qui, quod*, *adjective*. But *quis* and *qui* are sometimes used for each other. Thus —

*quis vocat? who calls? quid vidēs? what do you see? but —*  
*quī (or quis) homo vocat? quod templum vidēs?*  
*nescio quī sis, I know not who you are.*

*b.* Old forms for the genitive and dative are *quoius, quol*.

*c.* The form *quī* is used for the ablative of both numbers and all genders ; but especially as an adverb (*how, by which way, in any way*), and in the combination *quicum*, as interrogative or indefinite relative.

*d.* A nominative plural *quēs* (stem *quī-*) is found in early Latin. The dative and ablative *quīs* (stem *quō-*) is old, but not infrequent.

<sup>1</sup> The stem has two forms, *quo-* and *quī-*. From the latter are formed *quis, quid, quem, quibus, quī* (abl.) ; while *qui, quae*, are probably lengthened forms of *quō, quā* (see 32, decl. 1), made by the addition of the demonstrative particle *ī*.

e. The preposition **cum** is joined enclitically to all forms of the ablative, as with the personal pronouns: as, *quōcum, quicum, quibuscum*.

f. The accusative form **quum** (**cum**) is used only as a conjunction, meaning *when* or *since*.

105. The stems **quo-** and **qui-** are thus compounded:

a. The suffix **-cumque** (**-cunque**) added to the relative makes an Indefinite Relative, which is declined as the simple word: as,

*quicumque, quaecumque, quodcumque, whoever, whatever.*

This suffix, with the same meaning, may be used with any relative: as, *qualiscumque, of whatever sort; quodcumque (quandoque), whenever; ubicumque, wherever.*

b. The interrogative form doubled also makes an indefinite relative: as, *quisquis, whoever* (so *utut, however, ubiubi, wherever*). Of *quisquis* both parts are declined, but the feminine is wanting in classic use: as,

NOM.	<b>quisquis</b> ( <b>quīquī</b> )	<b>quidquid</b> ( <b>quidquid</b> )
ACC.	<b>quemquem</b>	<b>quidquid</b> ( <b>quidquid</b> )
ABL.	<b>quōquō</b> <b>quāquā</b>	<b>quōquō</b>
Plur. NOM.	<b>quīquī</b>	DAT., ABL. <b>quibusquibus</b>

This compound is rare, except in the forms *quisquis, quicquid, and quōquō*. The case-form *quamquam* is used only as a conjunction. *Quīquī* (nom. sing.) is an early and *quāquā* a late form. The grammarians give also a regular genitive and dative. *Cuicuiusmodi* appears as a genitive, but is probably locative.

c. Indefinite Compounds are the following:—

<b>quidam, a, a certain;</b>	<b>quispiam, any;</b>
<b>quivis, quilibet, any-you-please;</b>	<b>quisquam, any-at-all.</b>

Of these, the former part is inflected like **quis, qui**, with **quid** or **quod** in the neuter.

d. In *aliquis, any; siquis, if any; nēquis, lest any; eoquis, uumquis, whether any*, the second part is declined like **quis**, but with **quā** for **quae**, except in the nominative plural feminine. The simple form **quis**, *any*, is rare except in these combinations; and the compounds **quispiam, aliquis**, are often used in these, being rather more emphatic (*si quis, if any one; si aliquis, if some one*). The forms *aliquae, ecquae* (nom. sing.), occur rarely.

These compounds are thus declined : —

	Sing.	some.	Plur.
N. <b>aliquis</b>	<b>aliqua</b>	<b>aliquid</b>	<b>aliqui</b> <b>aliquae</b> <b>aliqua</b>
G.	<b>alicujus</b>		<b>aliquorum</b> <b>aliquarum</b> <b>aliquorum</b>
D.	<b>alicui</b>		<b>aliquibus</b>
A. <b>aliquem</b>	<b>aliquam</b>	<b>aliquid</b>	<b>aliquos</b> <b>aliquas</b> <b>aliqua</b>
A. <b>aliquo</b>	<b>aliqua</b>	<b>aliquo</b>	<b>aliquibus</b>

NOTE. — **Aliquis** is compounded with **all-**, old stem of **alius**, but with weakened meaning. As an adjective, the form in **quod** is used instead of **quid**: as,

**aliquod bonum**, *some good thing*; but —

**aliquid boni**, *something good (something of good)*.

e. The enclitic **-que** added to the indefinite gives a Universal: as, **quisque**, *every one*; **ubique**, *everywhere* (so **uterque**, *either* of two, or *both*). Of **quisque** the first part is declined. In the compound **unusquisque**, *every single one*, both parts are declined, and sometimes separated by other words. **Quotus quisque** has the signification *how many pray?* often in a disparaging sense.

f. The relative and interrogative have a possessive adjective **cujus** (a, um), *whose*; and a patial **cujās** (cujāt-), *of what country*.

g. **Quantus**, *how great*, **quālis**, *of what sort*, are derivative adjectives from the same stem, and are used as interrogative or relative, corresponding to the demonstratives **tantus**, **tālis**.

**Quam**, *how*, is an accusative of the same stem, corresponding to the adverbial case-form **tam**, *so*.

h. **Quisquam**, with **ullus**, *any*, **unquam**, *ever*, **usquam**, *anywhere*, are chiefly used in negative, interrogative, or conditional sentences, or after **quam**, *than*; **sine**, *without*; **vix**, *scarcely*.

i. **Quisnam** is emphatic: *pray, who?* **Ecquis** and **numquis** are compounded from the indefinite particle **en** and the interrogative **num**; they mean not *who*, but *any*: as,

**ecquis nos videt?** *does any one see us?*

**num quid hoc dubitas,** *do you at all doubt this?*

#### Correlatives.

106. Many pronouns, pronominal adjectives, and adverbs have corresponding forms, as *demonstrative*, *relative*, *interrogative*, and *indefinite*. These are called CORRELATIVES. They are shown in the following Table:

DEMONSTR.	RELAT.	INTERROG.	INDEF. REL.	INDEF.
<b>is, that</b>	qui	quis ?	quisquis	aliquis
<b>tantus, so great</b>	quantus	quantus ?	*	aliquantus
<b>tālis, such</b>	quālis	quālis ?	*	—
<b>ibi, there</b>	ubi	ubi ?	ubiūbi	alicūbi
<b>eō, thither</b>	quō	quō ?	quōquō	aliquō
<b>eā, that way</b>	quā	quā ?	quāquā	aliquā
<b>inde, thence</b>	unde	unde ?	*	alicunde
<b>tum, then</b>	quum, cum	quando ?	*	aliquando
<b>tot, so many</b>	quot	quot ?	quotquot	aliquot
<b>toties, so often</b>	quoties	quoties ?	*	aliquoties

\* Compounds with **-cumque**.

*a.* The forms **tot** (originally **toti**), **quot**, **aliquot**, **totidem**, are indeclinable, and may take any gender or case: as,

**per tot annos, tot proeliis, tot imperātōres** (Cic.), *so many commanders, for so many years, in so many battles.*

*b.* The correlative of the second member is often to be rendered simply as: thus,

**tantum argenti quantum aeris**, *as much silver as copper.*

*c.* A frequent form of correlative is found in the ablatives **quo** or **quanto**, *by how much*; **eo** or **tanto**, *by so much*, used with comparatives (rendered in English *the . . . the*):<sup>1</sup> as,

**quo magis conāris, eo longius progredieris**, *the more you try, the farther on you get.*

**107.** Certain relative and demonstrative adverbs are used correlatively, serving as conjunctions: as,

**ut** (rel.) . . . **ita, sic** (dem.), *as (while) . . . so (yet).*

**tam** (dem.) . . . **quam** (rel.), *so (as) . . . as.*

**cum** (rel.) . . . **tum** (dem.), *both . . . and; while . . . so also.*

Compare **et** . . . **et**, *both . . . and*; **aut (vel)** . . . **aut (vel)**, *either . . . or*; **sive (seu)** . . . **sive**; **utrum** . . . **an, whether** . . . **or**.

NOTE. — For the reciprocal use of **alius** and **alter**, see Syntax (203).

<sup>1</sup> In this phrase *the* is not the definite article, but a pronominal adverb, being the Anglo-Saxon instrumental case, *thy*.

## Chapter VI.—Verbs.

## I.—STRUCTURE OF THE VERB.

## Voice, Mood, Tense.

**108.** The inflections of the Verb denote Voice, Mood, Tense, Number, and Person.

↘ *a.* The VOICES are two, Active and Passive.

*b.* The MOODS are four, Indicative, Subjunctive, Imperative, and Infinitive.<sup>1</sup>

*c.* The TENSES are six, viz.:—

1. Present, Imperfect, Future (of continued action);

2. Perfect, Pluperfect, Future Perfect (of completed action).

↘ *d.* PERSON and NUMBER.—There are separate terminations for each of the three PERSONS—first, second, and third—both in the singular and in the plural.

## Noun and Adjective Forms.

**109.** The following Noun and Adjective forms are also included in the structure of the Latin Verb:—

*a.* FOUR PARTICIPLES,<sup>2</sup> viz.:—

*Active*: the Present and Future Participles;

*Passive*: the Perfect Participle and the Gerundive.<sup>3</sup>

*b.* The GERUND: this is in form a neuter noun of the second declension, used only in the oblique cases of the singular, its nominative being supplied by the Infinitive (see 114. N.).

*c.* The SUPINE: this is in form a defective noun of the fourth declension (see 71. *a*).

## Defective Forms.

**110.** Special forms for some of the tenses are wanting in certain parts of the verb, viz.:—

<sup>1</sup> The Infinitive is strictly a case of an abstract noun, expressing the action of the verb; but it plays so important a part in verbal construction, that it is properly treated as a part of the verb.

<sup>2</sup> The Participles are Adjectives in inflection and meaning (see 25. *e*), but have the power of Verbs in construction and in distinguishing time.

<sup>3</sup> The Gerundive is also used as an adjective, indicating *necessity* or *duty* (see 113. *d*). In late use it became a Future Passive Participle.

a. The Subjunctive mood wants the Future and the Future Perfect.<sup>1</sup> In some constructions, these tenses are supplied by the future participle with corresponding tenses of the verb signifying TO BE: as, *cum secūtūrus sit, since he will follow.*

b. In the Passive voice, tenses of completed action (Perfect, Pluperfect, and Future Perfect) are supplied by the Perfect Participle with corresponding tenses (present, imperfect, and future) of the verb signifying TO BE: as, *occisus est, he was killed.*

c. In the Imperative mood, the only tenses are the Present and the Future.

d. In the Infinitive mood only the Present and the Perfect are formed by inflection. A Future in the active voice is formed by the Future Participle with the infinitive signifying TO BE; in the passive, by the Former Supine with *iri* (infin. pass. of *ire, to go*).

#### Voices.

111. The active and passive Voices in Latin are equivalent to the corresponding English forms, except that the tenses of the passive are used with more exactness. Thus —

a. In the Present: *domus aedificātur* means, not *the house is built*, but *is [in course of] being built.*

b. In the Perfect: *domus aedificāta est, the house is built*, i. e. the building is now completed; or, *the house was built*; i. e. at some time indicated.

NOTE. — 1. The passive voice often has a Reflexive meaning: as, *induitur vestem, he puts on his [own] clothes.*

2. Many verbs are only used in the passive form, but with an active or reflexive meaning. These are called DEONENTS, i. e., as laying aside (*dēponere*) the active form and passive meaning.

#### Moods.

112. The MOODS of the Latin verb are used as follows:—

a. The Indicative Mood is used for *direct assertions* or *interrogations*: as,

*valesne? valeo, Are you well? I am well.*

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<sup>1</sup> These are wanting, because the original meaning and most of the uses of the Subjunctive are future.



*b.* The Subjunctive Mood is idiomatically used in *commands*, *conditions*, and various *dependent clauses*. It is frequently translated by the English Indicative; sometimes by the Potential, with the auxiliaries *may*, *might*, *would*, *should*; sometimes by the rare Subjunctive; sometimes by the Infinitive; and is often used for the Imperative, especially in *prohibitions*: as,

*eāmus*, *let us go*.

*si adesses*, *if you were [now] here*.

*cum vēnisset*, *when he had come*.

*adsum ut videam*, *I am here to see (that I may see)*.

*tu ne quaesieris*, *do not thou inquire*.

*nōmo est qui ita existimet*, *there is no one who thinks so*.

NOTE. — The Latin Subjunctive is often translated, formally, by the English potential forms, *may*, *might*, *could*, *would*, &c., to distinguish it from the Indicative, because the English has no subjunctive in general use. But the subjunctive is used in many cases where we use the indicative; and we use the potential in many cases where the Latin employs a separate verb. Thus, *I may write* (except when it follows *ut*, *in order that*) is not *scribam* (subj.), but *licet mihi scribere*; *I can write* is *possum scribere*; *I would write* is *scribam*, *scriberem*, or *scribere velim* (*vellem*); *I should write*, *if*, &c., *scriberem si . . .*, or (implying duty) *oportet me scribere*. A few examples of the use of the subjunctive may be seen in the following: —

1. *beātus sis*, *may you be blessed*.

2. *ne abeat*, *let him not depart*.

3. *quid morer*, *why should I delay?*

4. *sunt qui putent*, *there are some who think*.

5. *imperat ut scribam*, *he orders me to write*.

6. *nescio quid scribam*, *I know not what to write*.

7. *licet eas*, *you may go*; *cave cadas*, *don't fall*.

8. *vereor ne eat*, *I fear he will go*.

9. *vereor ut eat*, *I fear he will not go*.

10. *si moneam audiat* (pres.), *if I should warn, he would hear*.

11. *si vocārem audīret* (imperf.), *if I were [now] calling, he would hear*.

12. *quae cum dixisset abiit*, *when he had said this, he went away*.

*c.* The IMPERATIVE is used for *exhortation* or *command*; but its place is often supplied by the Subjunctive.

*d.* The INFINITIVE is used chiefly as an indeclinable noun, as the subject or object of another verb; but in special constructions it takes the place of the Indicative, and may be translated by that mood in English (see "Indirect Discourse").

NOTE. — For the Syntax of the Moods, see pp. 184–204.

Participles.

113. The PARTICIPLES of the Latin verb are used as follows:—

a. The Present participle (ending in *ns*) has commonly the same meaning and use as the English participle in *ING*: as, *vo-cāns, calling*; *legentes, reading*. (For its inflection see 85.)

b. The Future participle (ending in *-ūrus*) is oftenest used as an adjective, to express what is likely or about to happen: as,

*urbs est cāsūra, the city is about to fall.*<sup>1</sup>

It is also used, more rarely, to express purpose: as,

*vēnit auditūrus, he came to hear.*

c. The Perfect participle is used to form certain tenses of the passive, and often has simply an adjective meaning: as,

*vocātus est, he was (has been) called*; *tectus, sheltered*;  
*acceptus, acceptable*; *lotus, having been struck*.

NOTE. — There is no perfect active or present passive participle in Latin. The perfect participle of deponents, however, is generally used in an active sense, as *secutus, having followed*. In other cases some different construction is used for these missing participles: as, *cum venisset, having come* (when he had come); *equitatu praemisso, having sent forward the cavalry* (the cavalry having been sent forward); *dum verberatur, while being struck* (= τυπτόμενος).

d. The Gerundive (ending in *ndus*) has, as an adjective, the meaning *ought* or *must*: as, *audiendus est, he must be heard.*<sup>2</sup>

But, in the oblique cases, it is oftener to be translated as if it were an active participle, governing the word it agrees with: as, *ad petendam pacem, to seek peace*.

e. The Participles may all be used as simple adjectives, and the present and perfect participles are sometimes compared as adjectives: as, *amantior, more fond*; *dilectissimus, dearest*.

f. The Present and Perfect participles are (like adjectives) often used as nouns, especially in the plural: as, *regentes, rulers* (those ruling); *mortui, the dead*.

g. As an adjective, the participle is often used to describe some special circumstance: as,

*moritūri vōs salūtāmus, we at the point of death salute you.*

<sup>1</sup> In this construction it is used with the tenses of the verb *TO BE*, forming what is called the "First Periphrastic Conjugation" (see page 77).

<sup>2</sup> The Gerundive, used as a predicate with the verb *TO BE*, forms the "Second Periphrastic Conjugation."

## Gerund and Supine.

114. The Gerund and Supine are used as follows : —

a. The GERUND is, in form, the neuter singular of the Gerundive. It is a verbal noun, corresponding to the English "participial infinitive" in -ING: as, *loquendi causā*, for the sake of speaking.

NOTE. — In this use the Gerund is found only in the oblique cases. The nominative is supplied by the Infinitive: as,

*scribere est utile*, writing (to write) is useful; but,  
*ars scribendi*, the art of writing.

b. The SUPINE is in form a noun of the Fourth declension, found only in the accusative (ending in *tum, sum*) and ablative (ending in *tū, sū*), which are sometimes called the Former and the Latter Supine. The former is used after verbs and the latter after adjectives: as,

1. *vēnit spectātum*, he came to see.
2. *mirābile dictu*, wonderful to tell.

## Tenses.

115. The tenses of the verb are of two classes, viz.:

## 1. Of continued action.

1. PRESENT: *scribo*, I am writing.
2. IMPERFECT: *scribēbām*, I was writing.
3. FUTURE: *scribam*, I shall write.

## 2. Of completed action.

4. PERFECT: *scripsi*, I have written.
5. PLUPERFECT: *scripseram*, I had written.
6. FUTURE PERFECT: *scripsero*, I shall have written.

a. The tenses have, in general, the same meaning as the corresponding tenses in English; but are in some cases distinguished more accurately in their use. Thus —

1. The Future or Future Perfect is used where we may use the Present in subordinate clauses: as,

*si quid habēbo dabo*, if I have [shall have] any thing, I will give.  
*cum vēnero scribam*, when I come [shall have come], I will write.

2. The Present and Imperfect are used to express continued action where English uses tenses of completed action: as,

*jam diu aegrōto*, I have long been [and still am] sick.

Here the Perfect, *aegrōtāvi*, would imply that I am now well.

*b.* The Perfect and Imperfect are both used to denote past time ; the former to tell a *simple fact*, the latter to describe a *continued* or *customary action*, or a *condition of things*.<sup>1</sup> Thus —

PERFECT : *scripsit, he wrote.*

IMPERFECT : *scribēbat, he was writing, or used to write.*

*c.* The Perfect has two separate uses, distinguished as *definite* and *historical*, corresponding to the Perfect (compound) and the simple Past (or preterite) in English : as,

*scripsit, he has written* (definite) ; *he wrote* (historical).

*d.* The tenses of the Subjunctive Mood are chiefly used in dependent clauses, following the rule of the Sequence of Tenses ; but have also special idiomatic uses (see Syntax, 286).

#### Personal Endings.

116. Verbs have regular terminations for each of the three Persons,<sup>2</sup> both singular and plural, active and passive, viz. : —

Sing.	ACTIVE.	PASSIVE.
1. m, o, or i <sup>3</sup> :	am-o, <i>I love.</i>	r : amo-r, <i>I am loved.</i>
2. s :	amā-s, <i>thou lovest.</i>	ris or rē : amā-ris, <i>thou art loved.</i>
3. t <sup>4</sup> :	ama-t, <i>he loves.</i>	tur : amā-tur, <i>he is loved.</i>
Plur.	ACTIVE.	PASSIVE.
1. mus :	amā-mus, <i>we love.</i>	mur : amā-mur, <i>we are loved.</i>
2. tis :	amā-tis, <i>you love.</i>	mini : amā-mini, <i>you are loved.</i>
3. nt :	amā-nt, <i>they love.</i>	ntur : amā-ntur, <i>they are loved.</i>

<sup>1</sup> In Latin, and in the languages derived from Latin (as Italian and French), there are two past tenses, — the Perfect or Preterite (*aorist*) which merely states that *the fact took place* ; and the Imperfect, which is used for *description*, or to indicate that *the action was in progress* : as, *longius prosequi* VETUIT, *quod loci naturam* IGNORABAT (B. G. v. 9). In the Northern languages (Germanic or Gothic, including English), the same tense serves for both.

<sup>2</sup> These terminations are fragments of old Pronouns, whose signification is thus added to that of the Verb-stem (compare page 14, Note 1).

<sup>3</sup> The present indicative of the active voice has lost the *m*, and ends in the modified stem-vowel *o*, except in *sum* and *inquam*. Here *o* stands for *m* blended in sound with a preceding vowel (*amo* = *ama-m*). The perfect, future perfect, and the future in *do* have also lost the *m*.

<sup>4</sup> All Latin words ending in *t*, except *at* (*ast*), *aut*, *sat*, *et*, *-met*, *post*, *tot* ; *quot*, *ut*, *caput* ; and their compounds, are verbs in the third person ; all in *nt* are in the 3d person plural. — In *dumtaxat*, *licet*, and the indefinite pronouns in *-libet* the meanings of the verbs are disguised (See also 8, p. 3).

a. The perfect Indicative (active voice) has the special terminations : —

SING. 2. -**sti** : amāv-i-**sti**, *thou lovedst*.

PLUR. 2. -**stis** : amāv-i-**stis**, *you loved*.

3. -**ērunt** or -**ēre** : amāv-**ērunt** (**ēre**), *they loved*.

b. The Imperative has the following terminations :

Sing. ACTIVE.

PASSIVE.

2. — : amā, *love thou*.

re : amā-re, *be thou loved*.

3. to : amā-to, *let him love*.

tor : amā-tor, *let him be loved*.

Plur.

2. te, tōte : amā-te, *love ye*.

mini : amā-mini, *be ye loved*.

3. nto : amā-nto, *let them love*.

ntor : amā-ntor, *let them be loved*.

## 2.—FORMS OF THE VERB.

117. All Latin Verb-forms are made up of three parts, viz. : —

1. The ROOT (see 22) ; often variously modified, so as to form what is called a STEM.
2. The Signs of TENSE or MOOD.
3. The PERSONAL ENDINGS.

Thus in the word **vocā-vi-t**, the Root is **VOC**, modified into the verb-stem **vocā-**, which by the addition of **ui** (**vi**) becomes the perfect tense **vocāvi** ; and to this is added the personal ending (**t**) of the third person singular.

### NATURE AND ORIGIN OF VERB-FORMS.

In the Indicative and Subjunctive Present, in the Imperative, and, in some cases, in the Future, the terminations are added directly to a modified form of the Root, called the **PRESENT STEM**. This Stem, in three out of four methods of conjugation (the 1st, 2d, and 4th conjugations), also appears in all parts of the verb, including the noun and adjective forms, and is accordingly called the **VERB-STEM**. In the Present Subjunctive of all the conjugations, and in the Future of the 3d and 4th, however, there are modifications of the verb-stem of various origin.<sup>1</sup>

In the Perfect in a few verbs, the terminations are added directly to a different modification of the Root, called the **PERFECT STEM** : as in *do*, *dedi*.

<sup>1</sup> These modifications, in the 1st conjugation, and the Future of the 3d and 4th, are caused by the addition of a verbal form (optative from the root **YA**, *to go*) to the Stem. In the other cases, their origin is not certain ; but it is supposed to be the same as that of the stem-vowels themselves, corresponding to that found in the Greek Subjunctive. (See Note, p. 72 ; p. 74 : 126. a-d).

All other true verb-forms are compounded with a suffix (auxiliary), originally a verb, which already contained the personal endings : as *vocā-bat*, *vocā-bū*, *vocā-ret*, *vocā-verat*, *vocā-verit*, *vocā-visset*. Thus the signs of mood and tense appear to be inserted between the Verb-stem (or Root) and the personal endings, though strictly they were not so inserted. But the first person of the Perfect, whether formed by a modification of the root as in *de-di*, or a verbal suffix as in *vocā-vi*, *man-si*, loses its final vowel, and is treated as a new stem, to which other verbal suffixes are added, likewise containing the personal endings.

The Perfect and Future Participles, and the Supine, though strictly noun-forms with separate suffixes, agree in having the first letter of their suffix (*t*) the same, with the same phonetic changes, as *cās-um* (for *cad-um*), *cās-ūrus*.

These forms naturally divide into three groups, in which in fact they appeared to the Romans themselves, who had very early become unconscious of their derivation. Hence, verbs may be formed upon three STEMS (partly real, partly supposed) by adding Verbal Endings, which include signs of Tense and Mood as well as Personal Endings, and (in the case of the Infinitive and Participles) even noun and adjective terminations. These Stems are the PRESENT, the PERFECT, and the SUPINE STEM.

#### Verb-Endings.

118. The scheme of Verb-Endings,<sup>1</sup> as they are formed by suffixes, together with personal endings, is as follows :

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<sup>1</sup> The origin and meaning of some of these verb-endings may be given as follows. The suffix *bam* is an imperfect of *BHU*, which appears in *fui*, *futurus*, *fio*, the Greek *φύω*, and English *be* ; — *rem* (for *sem*) is an optative or subjunctive imperfect of *ES*, which appears in *sum*, *ei*, *am*, &c. ; — *bo* is a future, and *vi* a perfect, of *BHU* ; — *si* is a perfect of *ES*, and is kindred with the aorist-ending *σα*, though not of the same formation ; — *erim* is an optative form or subjunctive present of *ES*, the same form originally as *sim* ; — *ero* (for *es-io*) is the future of *esse* ; *issem* = *essem* ; *is* = *esse*. Thus these terminations are seen to have the same force as Auxiliary verbs in English.

The *i* of the Perfect, which in early Latin is always *long* (*ei*, *i*, *e*) except before *mus*, is of doubtful origin. It is probably in all cases a part of the stem, as it is in *dedi*, *steti*, where it takes the place of the vowel *a*. In the suffixes *vi* (= *fui*) and *si* (= *Skr. āsa*), and in the perfects of consonant-roots, it seems to be, but probably is not, a mere connecting vowel. The *s* before *ti* and *tis* is also anomalous. Most scholars regard it as a remnant of *es* ; but it may be, like the others, of pronominal origin.

The Passive is a peculiar Latin *middle* (or reflexive) form, made by adding *se* to the forms of the active voice, with some abrasion of their endings (the original form of *se*, *sva*, like *self*, was not limited to the third person). Thus *amor* = *amo-se*, *amaris* = *amasi-se*, *amatur* = *amati-se*. The above view seems the most probable, in spite of some objections. The ending *mini* in the second person plural of the passive is a remnant of the participial form found in the Greek *-μενος*, supplanting the proper form, which does not appear in Latin.

## 1. — Verbal Forms.

INDIC.		ACTIVE.	SUBJ.	Present.	INDIC.	PASSIVE.	SUBJ.
<i>Sing.</i> 1.	o <sup>1</sup>	Vowel-Change: 1. to ē. 3. to a. 2. to ed. 4. to ā.	m <sup>1</sup>			Vowel-Change: as in Active.	r
2.	s		s		or ris or re		ris or re
3.	t		t		tur		tur
<i>Plur.</i> 1.	mus		mus		mur		mur
2.	tis		tis		minī		minī
3.	nt		nt		ntur		ntur
<b>Imperfect.</b>							
<i>Sing.</i> 1.	bam <sup>1</sup>		rem		bar		rer
2.	bās		rēs		bāris (re)		rēris (re)
3.	bat		ret		bātur		rētur
<i>Plur.</i> 1.	bāmus		rēmus		bāmur		rēmur
2.	bātis		rētis		bāminī		rēminī
3.	bānt		rent		bantur		rentur
<b>Future.</b>							
<i>Sing.</i> 1.	i. ii.	iii. iv.	Vowel-Change as indicated in italics; verbs in <i>to</i> retaining <i>i</i> before these vowels.		i. ii.	iii. iv.	Vowel-Change: as in Active.
1.	bo	am <sup>1</sup>		bor	ar <sup>1</sup>		
2.	bis	ēs		beris (re)	ēris (re)		
3.	bit	et		bitur	etur		
<i>Plur.</i> 1.	bimus	emus		bimur	emur		
2.	bitis	ētis		biminī	eminī		
3.	bunt	ent		buntur	entur		
<b>Perfect.</b>							
<i>Sing.</i> 1.	ī		erim		-tus (ta,	sum	sim
2.	istī		eris		tum)	es	sīs
3.	it		erit			est	sit
<i>Plur.</i> 1.	imus		erimus		-ti (tae,	sumus	sīmus
2.	istis		eritis		ta)	estis	sītis
3.	ērunt or ēre		erint			sunt	sint
<b>Pluperfect.</b>							
<i>Sing.</i> 1.	eram		issem		-tus (ta,	eram	essem
2.	erās		issēs		tum)	erās	essēs
3.	erat		isset			erat	esset
<i>Plur.</i> 1.	erāmus		issēmus		-ti (tae,	erāmus	essēmus
2.	erātis		issētis		ta)	erātis	essētis
3.	erant		issent			erant	essent
<b>Future Perfect.</b>							
<i>Sing.</i> 1.	ero				-tus (ta,	ero	
2.	eris				tum)	eris	
3.	erit					erit	
<i>Plur.</i> 1.	erimus				-ti (tae,	erimus	
2.	eritis				ta)	eritis	
3.	erint					erunt	

<sup>1</sup> For some changes of Stem see 126.

## Imperative.

<i>Sing.</i> 2. —		re
3. to		tor
<i>Plur.</i> 2. te, tôte		minī
3. nto		ntor

## 2. — Noun and Adjective Forms.

## Infinitive.

<i>Pres.</i> re (Pres. stem)	i ii. iv. rī, iii. ī ( <i>old</i> rier, ier)
<i>Perf.</i> isse (Perf. stem)	tus (ta, tum) esse
<i>Fut.</i> turus (a, um) esse	tum īrī (see 147. c)

## Participle.

<i>Pres.</i> ns, ntis	_____
<i>Perf.</i> _____	tus, ta, tum
<i>Fut.</i> turus, a, um	<i>Ger.</i> ndus, a, um

SUPINE. tum, tu

## ESSE and its Compounds.

119. The verb **esse**,<sup>1</sup> *to be*, is both irregular and defective, having no gerund or supine, and no participle but the future.

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<sup>1</sup> The root of the verb **esse** is **es-**, which in the imperfect is changed to **er-** (see 11. a), and in many cases is shortened to **s-**. Some of its modifications, as found in several languages more or less distinctly related to Latin, may be seen in the following Table;—the “Indo-European” being the primitive or theoretic form, and the form *syām* corresponding to the Latin *sim* (*siem*):—

<i>Ind-Eur.</i>	<i>Sanskrit.</i>		<i>Greek.</i>	<i>Latin.</i>	<i>Lithuanian.</i>
<b>as-mi</b>	as-mi	<i>syām</i> (opt.)	ἐμμι †	s-um	es-mi
<b>as-si</b>	as-i	<i>syās</i>	ἐσσι †	es	es-i
<b>as-ti</b>	as-ti	<i>syāt</i>	ἐστί	es-t	es-ti
<b>as-masi</b>	s-mas	<i>syāma</i>	ἐσμεν	s-umus	es-me
<b>as-tasi</b>	s-tha	<i>syāta</i>	ἐστέ	es-tis	es-te
<b>as-anti</b>	s-anti	<i>syus</i>	ἐσσι †	s-unt	es-ti

† Old Form

The Perfect and Supine stems, **ful**, **futuro-**, are kindred with the Greek *ἐφν*, and with the English *be*.

The present participle, which should be **sens** (compare Sanskrit *sant*), appears in that form in **ab-sens**, **prae-sens**; and as **ens** (compare *ὄν*) in **pot-ens**. The simple form **ens** is sometimes found in late or philosophical Latin as a participle or abstract noun, in the forms **ens**, *being*; **entia**, *things which are*.



PRESENT. INFIN. PERF. FUT. PART.

PRINCIPAL PARTS: **sum esse fui futūrus.**

INDICATIVE.		Present.	SUBJUNCTIVE.
<i>Sing.</i> 1.	<b>sum, I am.</b>	<b>sim, may I be !<sup>1</sup></b>	
2.	<b>ēs, thou art (you are).</b>	<b>sis, be thou, or may you be.</b>	
3.	<b>est, he (she, it) is.</b>	<b>sit, let him be (may he be).</b>	
<i>Plur.</i> 1.	<b>sumus, we are.</b>	<b>simus, let us be.</b>	
2.	<b>estis, you are.</b>	<b>sitis, be ye, or may ye be.</b>	
3.	<b>sunt, they are.</b>	<b>sint, let them be (may they be)</b>	
		Imperfect.	
<i>Sing.</i> 1.	<b>eram, I was.</b>	<b>essem, I should be.</b>	
2.	<b>erās, you were.</b>	<b>essēs, you would be.</b>	
3.	<b>erat, he (she, it) was.</b>	<b>esset, he would be.</b>	
<i>Plur.</i> 1.	<b>erāmus, we were.</b>	<b>essēmus, we should be.</b>	
2.	<b>erātis, you were.</b>	<b>essētis, you would be.</b>	
3.	<b>erānt, they were.</b>	<b>essēnt, they would be.</b>	
		Future.	
<i>Sing.</i> 1.	<b>ero, I shall be.</b>	<b>[futūrus sim see note, p. 77]</b>	
2.	<b>eris, you will be.</b>		
3.	<b>erit, he will be.</b>		
<i>Plur.</i> 1.	<b>erimus, we shall be.</b>		
2.	<b>eritis, you will be.</b>		
3.	<b>erunt, they will be.</b>		
		Perfect.	
<i>Sing.</i> 1.	<b>fui, I was (have been).</b>	<b>fuerim (see Note below)</b>	
2.	<b>fuisti, you were.</b>	<b>fueris</b>	
3.	<b>fuit, he was.</b>	<b>fuerit</b>	
<i>Plur.</i> 1.	<b>fuimus, we were.</b>	<b>fuerimus</b>	
2.	<b>fuistis, you were.</b>	<b>fueritis</b>	
3.	<b>fuērunt, they were.</b>	<b>fuerint</b>	

<sup>1</sup> The translations of the subjunctive here given show the most frequent meanings of their forms *when used independently*. For the numerous *dependent* meanings of the subjunctive, see Syntax. The most common may be seen in the following table:—

1. **sit, let him be** (in apodosis, *he would be*); **si sit** (in protasis), *if he should be*; **cum sit**, *since he is*.
2. **esset, he would be**; **si esset**, *if he were*; **cum esset**, *when (or since) he was*.
3. **fuerit, suppose he was** (or *has been*); **si fuerit**, *if he should have been*; **cum fuerit**, *since he was*; **ne fueris** (prohib.), *be thou not*.
4. **fuisse, he would have been**; **si fuisset**, *if he had been*; **cum fuisset**, *when (or since) he had been*.

## Pluperfect.

<i>Sing.</i> 1. fueram, <i>I had been.</i>	fuissem, <i>I should have been.</i>
2. fuerās, <i>you had been.</i>	fuisseōs, <i>you would have been.</i>
3. fuerat, <i>he had been.</i>	fuisset, <i>he would have been.</i>
<i>Plur.</i> 1. fuerāmus, <i>we had been.</i>	fuissemus, <i>we should have been.</i>
2. fuerātis, <i>you had been.</i>	fuisseētis, <i>you would have been.</i>
3. fuerānt, <i>they had been.</i>	fuisseōnt, <i>they would have been.</i>

## Future Perfect.

<i>Sing.</i> 1. fuero, <i>I shall have been.</i>
2. fueris, <i>you will have been.</i>
3. fuerit, <i>he will have been.</i>
<i>Plur.</i> 1. fuerimus, <i>we shall have been.</i>
2. fueritis, <i>you will have been.</i>
3. fuerint, <i>they will have been.</i>

## Imperative.

<i>Present.</i> es, <i>be thou.</i>	este, <i>be ye.</i>
<i>Future.</i> esto, <i>thou shalt be.</i>	estōte, <i>ye shall be.</i>
esto, <i>he shall be.</i>	sunto, <i>they shall be.</i>

## Infinitive.

<i>Present.</i> esse, <i>to be.</i>
<i>Perfect.</i> fuisse, <i>to have been.</i>
<i>Future.</i> fore or futūrus esse, <i>to be about to be.</i>
<i>Future Participle.</i> futūrus, a, um, <i>about to be.</i>

RARE FORMS.—Indicative: Future, *escit, escunt* (strictly an inchoative present). Subjunctive: Present, *siem, sies, siet, sient*; *fuam, fuas, fuat, fuant*; Perfect, *fuvimus*; Pluperfect, *fuissei*. For *essem*, etc., *forem, forēs, foret, forent* are often used.

120. The forms of the verb **esse** appear in the following compounds:—

a. **Esse** is compounded, without any change of inflection, with the prepositions *ab, ad, dē, in, inter, ob, prae, prō* (prod), *sub, super*. In the compound *prodesse, to profit*, *pro* retains its original *d* when followed by *e*: as, *prōsum, prōdes, prōdest, prōsumus, prōdestis, prōsunt*.

b. It is also compounded with the adjective *potis* or *pote, able*, in the verb *posse*. Its inflection, with that of *prōdesse*, is given in the following:—

Present.			
possum, <i>I can.</i>	possim	prōsum, <i>I help.</i>	prōsim
potes, <i>you can.</i>	possis	prōdes	prōsis
potest, <i>he can.</i>	possit	prōdest	prōsit
possumus, <i>we can.</i>	possimus	prōsumus	prōsimus
potestis, <i>you can.</i>	possitis	prōdestis	prōsitis
possunt, <i>they can.</i>	possint	prōsunt	prōsint
Imperfect.			
poteram, <i>I could.</i>	possem	prōderam	prōdessem
Future.			
potero, <i>I shall be able.</i>		prōdero, <i>I shall help.</i>	
Perfect.			
potui, <i>I could.</i>	potuerim	prōfui, <i>I helped.</i>	prōfuerim
Pluperfect.			
potueram	potuissem	prōfueram	prōfuissem
Future Perfect.			
potuēro, <i>I shall have been able.</i>		prōfuēro, <i>I shall have helped.</i>	
Imperative.			
—		prōdes, prōdesto, &c.	
Infinitive.			
PR. posse	PERF. potuisse	PR. prōdesse	PERF. prōfuisse
Participles.			
potēns (adj.), <i>powerful.</i>		prōfutūrus, <i>about to help.</i>	

## 3.—THE REGULAR VERB.

## The Three Stems.

121. The parts of the Latin verb may be formed upon three different stems,<sup>1</sup> called the Present, the Perfect, and the Supine Stem (see 117).

a. The tenses of *continued action*, both active and passive, together with the Gerund and Gerundive, are formed upon the PRESENT STEM.

b. The tenses of *completed action* in the active voice are formed upon the PERFECT STEM.

c. The Perfect and Future Participles and the Supine are formed upon the SUPINE STEM.<sup>2</sup>

<sup>1</sup> In most verbs of the 1st, 2d, and 4th conjugations, the Present Stem is used as the Verb-Stem, from which the others are derived in the manner hereafter shown.

<sup>2</sup> Strictly these have no common stem, but are formed with special suffixes (to-, turo-, tu-). As, however, the form to which they are added is the same for each, and as the suffixes all begin with *t*, it is usual to give the name *supine*.

The Four Conjugations.

**122.** There are in Latin four principal forms of Present Stems, ending respectively in **ā, ē, ě, ī**. With this difference of stem most of the other differences of conjugation coincide.

*a.* Verbs are accordingly classed in four regular Conjugations, distinguished by the stem-vowel which appears before **-re** in the Present Infinitive Active.

*b.* The PRINCIPAL PARTS of a verb which determine its conjugation throughout are —

1. The Present Indicative } showing the *present stem*
2. The Present Infinitive } and the *conjugation* ;
3. The Perfect Indicative, showing the *perfect stem* ;
4. The Supine, showing the *supine stem*.

*c.* The regular forms of the conjugation are seen in the following :

1. **amo, amāre, amāvi, amātum, to love.**

Present and Verb-stem, *amā-*, Perfect stem, *amāv-*, Supine stem, *amāt-*.

2. **dēleo, dēlēre, dēlēvi, dēlētum, to destroy.**

Present and Verb-stem, *dēlē-*, Perfect stem, *dēlēv-*, Supine stem, *dēlē-*.

3. **tēgo, tēgere, tēxi, tectum, to cover.**

Root **TEG** : Present stem, *tēgē-*, Perfect stem, *tēx-*, Supine stem, *tect-*.

4. **audio, audire, audīvi, audītum, to hear.**

Present and Verb-stem, *audī-*, Perfect stem, *audīv-*, Supine stem, *audīt-*.

In the second conjugation, however, the characteristic **ē** rarely appears in the perfect and supine : thus the type of this conjugation is — 2. **moneo, monēre, monui, monitum, to warn.**

*d.* In many verbs the principal parts take the forms of two or more different conjugations (See 134, p. 87) : as,

1. 2. **domo, domāre, domui, domitum, to subdue.**

2. 3. **maneo, manēre, mansi, mansum, to remain.**

3. 4. **peto, petere, petīvi, petitum, to seek.**

4. 3. **vincio, vincire, vinxi, vinctum, to bind.**

In these the conjugation is denoted by the *first* or *present stem*.

NOTE. — The conjugation of verbs used only in the Passive (deponents) is determined by the passive form of the infinitive ; thus **patior, pati, passus** is of the Third conjugation.

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*stem* to the form in **t**. The participle in **to-** corresponds to the Greek verbal **ros-**, that in **turo-** is a development of the noun of *agency* ending in **-tor** (as **victor, victurus**) ; that in **tu-** is an abstract noun of the fourth declension (see 125).

## Present Stem.

123. The Present Stem is formed from the Root in all regular verbs in one of the following ways :<sup>1</sup>—

a. In the First, Second, and Fourth conjugations, by adding a *long vowel* (ā, ē, ī) to the Root whose vowel is sometimes changed : as, *vocā-re* (VOC), *monē-re* (MEN, orig. MAN), *sopī-re* (SOP).

b. In the Third conjugation, by adding a *short vowel* (æ, ɪ) : as, *tegē-re*, *all-tis*. This may be preceded —

1. By *n, t, sc*, or *y* :<sup>2</sup> as, *tem-ne-re* (TEM), *cre-sce-re* (CRE).

2. By *l*, which in most forms disappears in inflection (see 126. c.) : as, *fug-i-o*, *fug-ē-re* (FUG).<sup>3</sup>

c. The root may also be changed —

1. By lengthening the vowel : as, *dic-e-re* (DIC), *caed-e-re* (CAD).

2. By reduplication : as, *gi-gn-e-re* (GEN).

3. By inserting *m* or *n* (nasal) : as, *find-e-re* (FID) ; *tang-e-re* (TAG).

d. Some verbs are formed from a noun-stem irregularly treated as a Root : as, *statu-e-re* (*statu-s*), *aestuāre* (*aestu-s*).

e. A few isolated forms have the simple root : as, *fer-re*, *fer-t* ; *es-se*, *vel-le*, *vul-t*. A few have roots ending in a vowel.

## Perfect Stem.

124. The Perfect Stem<sup>4</sup> is formed as follows :—

<sup>1</sup> The so-called “connecting vowel” is really a part of the stem. The long vowels ā, ē, ī, of the First, Second, and Fourth conjugations, are different corruptions of a suffix AYA, which in the original language was added to Roots in one form of Present Stems. The *ē* of the Third conjugation comes from an original A, or some other suffix ending in A added to the Root to form other kinds of Present Stems (*fero* = *bharāmi*, *ferimus* = *bharāmas*) : as, *capio*, *tollo* (VA), *temno* (NA), *mitto* (TA). These suffixes may be traced in the following parallel inflections :—

1. vāch-ayā-mi	<i>voc-(a)-o</i>	2. vah-ā-mi	<i>veh-o</i>	3. paç-yā-mi	<i>spec-i-o</i>
vach-aya-si	<i>voc-ā-s</i>	vah-a-si	<i>veh-i-s</i>	paç-ya-si	<i>spec-i-s</i>
vach-aya-ti	<i>voc-a-t</i>	vah-a-ti	<i>veh-i-t</i>	paç-ya-ti	<i>spec-i-t</i>
vach-ayā-mas	<i>voc-ā-mus</i>	vah-ā-mas	<i>veh-i-mus</i>	paç-yā-mas	<i>spec-i-mus</i>
vach-aya-tha	<i>voc-ā-tis</i>	vah-a-tha	<i>veh-i-tis</i>	paç-ya-tha	<i>spec-i-tis</i>
vach-aya-nti	<i>voc-a-nt</i>	vah-a-nti	<i>veh-u-nt</i>	paç-ya-nti	<i>spec-i-unt</i>

In all other cases where there appears to be a connecting vowel, it comes from a verb-stem being used irregularly as a Root, — just as in *finxi* (root FIG, present *finxo*), the *n* of the present has forced itself into the perfect : as in *soni-tus*, *moni-tus*, *ori-tūrus* (compare *or-tus* : so *domi-tor* compared with *arātor*) ; *feri-mus* (compare *fert*), *edi-mus* (compare *est* = *edit*). <sup>2</sup> As, *pel-lo* for *pel-yo*.

<sup>3</sup> For the verbs thus formed, see p. 83. The *i* stands for an original *y* sound.

<sup>4</sup> The final *i* of the Perfect is probably to be regarded as a part of the stem. Its origin, however, is doubtful ; and it may be more convenient in practice to take for the Stem the part preceding the tense endings *i*, *eram*, *ero*, &c.

a. The suffix **v** (**u**) is added to the stem : as, *vocā-v-i*, *audī-v-i*; or to the root : as, *son-u-i* (*sonā-re*), *mon-u-i* (*monē-re*).

NOTE. — In a few verbs the vowel of the root is transposed and lengthened : as, *strā-v-i* (*sterno*, STAR), *sprē-v-i* (*sperno*, SPAR).

b. The suffix **s** is added to the Root : as, *carp-s-i*, *tex-i* (TEG).

NOTE. — The modifications of the present stem, or a lost or imaginary stem, sometimes appear in the perfect : as, *finx-i* (FIG), *sanx-i* (SAC), *petī-v-i* (PET).

c. The Root is *reduplicated* by prefixing the first consonant — generally with **ē**, sometimes with the root-vowel : as, *ce-cid-i* (*cado*), *to-tond-i* (*tondeo*).

NOTE. — In *fid-i* (*findo*), *scid-i* (*scindo*), the reduplication has been lost, leaving the root merely.

d. The root-vowel is lengthened : as, *ēg-i* (*ēg-o*), *fūg-i* (*fūgio*).

e. The root has the same form as in the present : as, *vert-i* (*verto*), *solv-i* (*solveo*).

#### Supine Stem.

125. The Supine Stem<sup>1</sup> is formed by adding **t** (or euphonicallly **s**) —

a. To the verb-stem : as, *amā-t-um*, *dēlē-t-um*, *audī-t-um*.

b. To the Root, with or without **ī** : as, *cap-t-um* (*capio*), *monī-t-um* (*moneo*), *cās-um* (for *cad-t-um*).

NOTE. — The modifications of the present stem, or a lost or imaginary one, sometimes appear in the Supine : as, *tinc-t-um* (*tingo*), *tens-um* (*tendo*), *petī-t-um* (*peto*).

#### Formation of the Tenses.

NOTE. — The tenses of the regular verb may be formed upon the several verb-stems by adding to these stems the verb-endings (p. 66), making in the Present stem the changes indicated below.

126. The forms in the several conjugations, as determined by the Present Stem, with the regular formation of the Perfect and Supine stems, and the changes of the stem-vowel, may be given thus : —

a. The First Conjugation includes all verbs which add **ā** to the root to form the present stem, as *amā-re*; with a few whose root

<sup>1</sup> For the modifications of the Supine Stem, see 121. c, Note.

ends in **a**.<sup>1</sup> In these the perfect and supine stems regularly add **v**, **t**, to the present stem: <sup>2</sup> as, *amā-v-i*, *amā-t-um*. The stem-vowel **a** is lost before **o** (as *amo* = *ama-o*), and in the present subjunctive is changed to **ē**: as, *amē-s*, *amē-mus*.

**b.** The Second Conjugation includes all verbs which add **ē** to form the present stem: as, *monē-re*; with a few whose root ends in **e**.<sup>3</sup> In a few the Perfect and Supine stems add **v** (**u**), **t**: as, *delē-v-i*, *delē-t-um*; but, in most, they are added to the root in the perfect, and to a weaker stem in **ī** in the supine: as, *mon-u-i*, *moni-t-um*.<sup>4</sup> In the pres. subj. **ā** is added: as, *mone-ās*, *mone-āmus*.

**c.** The Third Conjugation includes all verbs (not irregular) which add **ē** to form the Present stem: as, *tegē-re*, *capē-re*; with a few whose root ends in **ē**: as, *se-re-re*.<sup>5</sup> All the forms of the perfect and supine stems are found in this conjugation.<sup>6</sup> The stem vowel **ē** is lost before **o**, becomes **u** before **nt**, and **ī** before the other endings of the indicative and imperative: as, *tego*, *tegit*, *tegunt*; in the imperfect indicative it becomes **ē**: as, *tegēbam*; pres. subj. **ā**.

Verbs in **ic** retain **i** before **a**, **o**, **u**, and **ē**: as, *capiat*, *capiunt*, *capiebat*, *capies*, *capiet*; but lose it elsewhere: as, *capit*, *caperet*.

**d.** The Fourth Conjugation includes all verbs which add **i**: as, *audī-re*.<sup>7</sup> In these the Perfect and Supine stems regularly add **v**, **t**, to the verb stem: as, *audī-v-i*, *audī-t-um*.<sup>8</sup> The endings of the third conjugation are added in the 3d person plural of the present (indic. and imperat.), in the imperf. and fut. indicative, and in the pres. subjunctive: as, *audi-unt*, *audi-ēbat*, *audi-ētis*, *audi-at*.

**e.** The Imperative (2d person singular) is the same as the Present Stem: as, *amā*, *monē*, *tegē*, *audī*. But verbs in **io** of the Third Conjugation omit **i**: as, *capē*.

**f.** The tenses of *completed action* are all regularly formed by adding the tense-endings (given on p. 66) to the Perfect Stem: as, *amāv-i*, *amāv-eram*, *amāv-ero*, *amāv-erim*, *amāv-issem*, *amāv-isse*.

**g.** The tenses of *completed action* in the Passive voice are formed by adding to the Perfect Participle the corresponding tenses of *continued action* of the verb **esse**: as, Perfect, *amātus sum*; Plup. *amātus eram*, etc.

<sup>1</sup> Viz., *dā-re*, *fā-ri*, *flā-re*, *nā-re*, *stā-re*.

<sup>2</sup> The present stem is thus the verb-stem. For exceptions, see p. 79. <sup>3</sup> These are *flē-re*, *nē-re*, *rē-ri*. <sup>4</sup> For exceptions, see p. 81.

<sup>5</sup> Reduplicated from *sē* (cf. *sātum*). <sup>6</sup> See Lists, pp. 84, 85; the perfect, however, is never formed from the present stem. <sup>7</sup> A few

are formed from noun-stems, as *finī-re*, and a few roots end in **i**; but these are not distinguishable in form. <sup>8</sup> For exceptions, see p. 87.

127. A Synopsis of the forms of the Verb (regular of the first conjugation), arranged according to the several Stems, may be given as follows:—

Present Stem, amā-			ACTIVE VOICE.		Perfect Stem, amāv-		
	PRES.	IMPERF.	FUT.		PERF.	PLUPERF.	FUT. PERF.
INDIC.	amo	amābam	amābo		amāvi, amāveram, amāvero		
SUBJ.	amem	amārem	—		amāverim, amāvissem		
IMPER.	2. amā	—	amāto		—		
INFIN.	amāre	—	—		amāvisse		
			PASSIVE VOICE.		Supine Stem, amāt-		
INDIC.	amor	amābar	amābor		amātus sum, — eram, — ero		
SUBJ.	amer	amārer	—		amātus sim, — essem		
IMPER.	2. amāre	—	amātor		—		
INFIN.	amāri	—	—		amātus esse — amātum iri		
PART. ACT. amans, amātūrus; PASS. amātus, amandus							

#### Special Forms.

128. The following special forms are found in the conjugation of many verbs:—

a. In tenses formed upon the Perfect stem, *v* between two vowels is often suppressed, and (unless *a* or *e* follows *i* or *u*) the second vowel is merged in the first: as, *amasse* = *amāvisse*; *flēstis* = *flēvistis*; *audieram* = *audīveram*; *nosse* = *nōvisse*. This is especially frequent in verbs of the fourth conjugation, and is regular in the compounds of *eo*: as, *abiit* for *abīvit*.

b. In many forms *is*, *iss* are suppressed in like manner when *s* would be repeated: as, *dixti* for *dixisti*; *traxe* for *traxisse*.

c. Four verbs — *dīco*, *dūco*, *facio*, *fero* — with their compounds, drop the vowel-termination of the Imperative, making *dīc*, *dūc*, *fāc*, *fēr*; but compounds in *-ficio* retain it, as *confice*. The forms *dīce*, *dūce*, *face* (never *ferē*), occur in early Latin.

d. For the Imperative of *scio*, the future form *scīto* is always used in the singular, and *scītōte* usually in the plural.

e. The following ancient forms are chiefly found in poetry:—

1. In the fourth conjugation *-ībam*, *-ībo* for *-lēbam*, *-iam* (fut.).
2. In the present subjunctive *-im*: as in *duim*, *perduim*, retained in religious formulas (compare *sim*, *velim*).
3. In the perf. subj. and fut. perf. *-so*, *-sim*: as, *faxo*, *faxim*.
4. In the passive infinitive *-ier*: as, *vocārier* for *vocāri*.
5. A form in *assere* is found as a future infinitive.



**First Conjugation. — 1. Active Voice.**

PRESENT.    INFIN.    PERFECT.    SUPINE.  
**PRINCIPAL PARTS: amo amāre amāvī amātum**

**INDICATIVE.**

**amo**, *I love.*  
**amās**, *you love.*  
**amat**, *he (she, it) loves.*  
**amāmus**, *we love.*  
**amātis**, *you love.*  
**amānt**, *they love.*

**amābam**, *I loved.*  
**amābās**, *you loved.*  
**amābat**, *he loved.*  
**amābāmus**, *we loved.*  
**amābātis**, *you loved.*  
**amābānt**, *they loved.*

**amābo**, *I shall love.*  
**amābis**, *you will love.*  
**amābit**, *he will love.*  
**amābimus**, *we shall love.*  
**amābitis**, *you will love.*  
**amābunt**, *they will love.*

**amāvī**, *I loved.*  
**amāvistī**, *you loved.*  
**amāvit**, *he loved.*  
**amāvimus**, *we loved.*  
**amāvistis**, *you loved.*  
**amāvērunt (ēre)**, *they loved.*

**amāveram**, *I had loved.*  
**amāverās**, *you had loved.*  
**amāverat**, *he had loved.*  
**amāverāmus**, *we had loved.*  
**amāverātis**, *you had loved.*  
**amāverānt**, *they had loved.*

**amāvero**, *I shall have loved.*  
**amāveris**, *you will have loved.*  
**amāverit**, *he will have loved.*  
**amāverimus**, *we shall have loved.*  
**amāveritis**, *you will have loved.*  
**amāverint**, *they will have loved.*

**SUBJUNCTIVE.****Present.**

**amem**, *may I love !*  
**amēs**, *love thou.*  
**amet**, *let him love.*  
**amēmus**, *let us love.*  
**amētis**, *love ye.*  
**amēnt**, *let them love.*

**Imperfect.**

**amārem**, *I should love.*  
**amārēs**, *you would love.*  
**amāret**, *he would love.*  
**amārēmus**, *we should love.*  
**amārētis**, *you would love.*  
**amārēnt**, *they would love.*

**Future.**

[**amātūrus sim**]

**Perfect.**

**amāverim** (see note, p. 68)  
**amāveris**  
**amāverit**  
**amāverimus**  
**amāveritis**  
**amāverint**

**Pluperfect.**

**amāvissem**, *I should have loved.*  
**amāvissēs**, *you would have* „  
**amāvisset**, *he would have* „  
**amāvissēmus**, *we should have* „  
**amāvissētis**, *you would have* „  
**amāvissēnt**, *they would have* „

**Future Perfect.**

<i>Singular.</i>	IMPERATIVE.	<i>Plural.</i>
PRES. 2. <i>amā, love thou.</i>	<i>amāte, love ye.</i>	
FUT. 2. <i>amāto, thou shalt love.</i>	<i>amātōte, ye shall love.</i>	
3. <i>amāto, he shall love.</i>	<i>amānto, they shall love.</i>	

## Noun and Adjective Forms.

## INFINITIVE.

PRESENT. <i>amāre, to love.</i>
PERFECT. <i>amāvisse, or amāsse, to have loved.</i>
FUTURE. <i>amātūrus esse, to be about to love.</i>

## PARTICIPLES.

PRESENT. <i>amans, āntis, loving.</i>
FUTURE. <i>amātūrus, a, um, about to love.</i>

## GERUND.

GEN. <i>amāndī, of [the act or state of] loving.</i>
DAT. <i>amāndō, for loving (with adjectives).</i>
ACC. <i>amāndum, loving (with ad and inter).</i>
ABL. <i>amāndō, by loving.</i>

## SUPINE.

*amātum, amātū, to love.*

**129.** The so-called Periphrastic conjugations are formed by combining the tenses of *esse* with the Future Participle (supine-stem)<sup>1</sup> and with the Gerundive (present-stem): as,

## First Periphrastic Conjugation.

	INDICATIVE.	SUBJUNCTIVE.
PRES.	<i>amātūrus sum . . . sim, I am about to love.</i>	
IMPERF.	<i>amātūrus eram . . . essem, I was about to love.</i>	
FUT.	<i>amātūrus ero, I shall be about to love.</i>	
PERF.	<i>amātūrus fui . . . fuerim</i>	
PLUP.	<i>amātūrus fueram . . . fuisset (F. P. not used.)</i>	

## Second Periphrastic Conjugation.

PRES.	<i>amandus sum . . . sim, I am to be loved.</i>
IMPERF.	<i>amandus eram . . . essem, I was to be loved.</i>
FUT.	<i>amandus ero, I shall be [worthy] to be loved.</i>
PERF.	<i>amandus fui . . . fuerim</i>
PLUP.	<i>amandus fueram . . . fuisset F. P. . . fuero</i>

<sup>1</sup> This is often necessary in the subjunctive, which has no future form: thus, *cum venturus sit, since he will come (is about to come).*

**First Conjugation.—2. Passive Voice.**

PRESENT.      INFIN.      PERFECT.  
 PRINCIPAL PARTS: **amor      amārī      amātus sum**

**INDICATIVE.**

**amor**, *I am loved.*  
**amāris (re)**, *you are loved.*  
**amātur**, *he is loved.*  
**amāmur**, *we are loved.*  
**amāmini**, *you are loved.*  
**amantur**, *they are loved.*

**SUBJUNCTIVE.****Present.**

**amer**, *may I be loved.*  
**amēris (re)**, *be thou loved.*  
**amōtur**, *let him be loved.*  
**amēmur**, *let us be loved.*  
**amēmini**, *be ye loved.*  
**amentur**, *let them be loved.*

**Imperfect.**

**amābar**, *I was loved.*  
**amābāris (re)**, *you were loved.*  
**amābātur**, *he was loved.*  
**amābāmur**, *we were loved.*  
**amābāmini**, *you were loved.*  
**amābantur**, *they were loved.*

**amārer**, *I should be loved.*  
**amārēris (re)**, *you would be loved.*  
**amārētur**, *he would be loved.*  
**amārēmur**, *we should be loved.*  
**amārēmini**, *you would be loved.*  
**amārentur**, *they would be loved.*

**Future.**

**amābor**, *I shall be loved.* [futūrum sit ut amer]  
**amāberis (re)**, *thou wilt (you will) be loved.*  
**amābitur**, *he will be loved.*  
**amābimur**, *we shall be loved.*  
**amābimini**, *you will be loved.*  
**amābuntur**, *they will be loved.*

**Perfect.**

**amātus sum**, *I was loved.*  
**amātus es**, *you were loved.*  
**amātus est**, *he was loved.*  
**amāti sumus**, *we were loved.*  
**amāti estis**, *you were loved.*  
**amāti sunt**, *they were loved.*

**amātus sim** (see note, p. 68).  
**amātus sis**  
**amātus sit**  
**amāti simus**  
**amāti sitis**  
**amāti sint**

**Pluperfect.**

**amātus eram**, *I had been loved.*  
**amātus erās**, *you had been loved.*  
**amātus erat**, *he had been loved.*  
**amāti erāmus**, *we had been loved.*  
**amāti erātis**, *you had been loved.*  
**amāti erant**, *they had been loved.*

**amātus essem**, *I should*  
**amātus essēs**, *you would*  
**amātus esset**, *he would* *have*  
**amāti essemus**, *we should* *been*  
**amāti essētis**, *you would* *loved.*  
**amāti essent**, *they would*

**Future Perfect.**

**amātus ero**, *I shall have been loved.*  
**amātus eris**, *you will have been loved.*  
**amātus erit**, *he will have been loved.*  
**amāti erimus**, *we shall have been loved.*  
**amāti eritis**, *you will have been loved.*  
**amāti erunt**, *they will have been loved.*

<i>Singular.</i>	IMPERATIVE.	<i>Plural.</i>
PRES. 2. amāre, <i>be thou loved.</i>	amāmini, <i>be ye loved.</i>	
FUT. 2. amātor, <i>thou shalt be loved.</i>	—	
3. amātor, <i>he shall be loved.</i>	amātor, <i>they shall be loved.</i>	

## Noun and Adjective Forms.

## INFINITIVE.

PRESENT. amāri, <i>to be loved.</i>
PERFECT. amātus esse, <i>to have been loved.</i>
FUTURE. amātum iri (amātus fore), <i>to be about to be loved.</i>

## PARTICIPLES.

PERFECT. amātus, <i>loved (beloved, or having been loved).</i>
GERUND. amāndus, a, um, <i>to-be-loved (lovely).</i>

## SUPINE.

amātū, *to love or to be loved (with adjectives).*

130. There are about 360 simple verbs of this conjugation, most of them formed directly upon a noun or adjective-stem, to which they generally give the force and meaning of an *active verb*: as, *armo, to arm (arma)*; *caeco, to blind (caecus)*; *exsulo, to be in exile (exsul)*. Their conjugation is usually regular, like *amo*; though of many only a few parts are found in use.

Those verbs which form their Perfect and Supine stems differently are the following. Those marked † have also regular forms, and forms preceded by a hyphen are found only in compounds: —

crepo, crepui, crepit-, <i>resound.</i>	neco, † necui, † nect-, <i>kill.</i>
cubo, cubui, cubit-, <i>lie down.</i>	plico, † plicui, † plicit-, <i>fold.</i>
do, dare, dedi, dat-, <i>give [DA].</i>	poto, potāvi, † pōt-, <i>drink.</i>
domo, domui, domit-, <i>subdue.</i>	seco, secui, sect-, <sup>1</sup> <i>cut.</i>
frico, fricui, † frict-, <i>rub.</i>	sono, sonui, sonit-, <sup>1</sup> <i>sound.</i>
juvo (ad-juvo), jūvi, jūt-, <sup>1</sup> <i>help.</i>	sto, steti, stāt- (-stit-), <i>stand.</i>
labo, āvi (no sup.), <i>totter.</i>	tono, tonui, tonit-, <i>thunder.</i>
mico, micui, <i>glitter.</i>	veto, vetui, vetit-, <i>forbid.</i>

<sup>1</sup> Forms in -aturus.

NOTE. — Compounds of these verbs have the following forms:

crepo: *dis-crepui* or *crepāvi*.

do: *circum-, inter-, pessum-, satis-, super-, venum-do, dedi, dat-*, of the 1st conjugation; other compounds are of the 3d (-dere, -didi, -dit-).

mico: *di-micāvi, micāt-*; *ē-micui, micāt-*.

plico: *re-, sub- (sup-), multi-plico, plicāvi, plicāt-*; *ex-plico* (unfold), *ui, it-*; (explain), *āvi, āt-*; *impli-co, āvi (ui), dūm (itum)*.

sto: *con-sto, stiti, stit- (stāt-)*; *ad-, re-sto, stiti, —*; *ante- (anti-), inter-, super-sto, steti, —*; *circum-sto, steti (stiti), —*; *dī-sto*, no perf. or sup.

## Second Conjugation.

PRINCIPAL PARTS: ACT. moneo monēre monuī monitum

PASS. moneor monērī monitus sum

INDIC. ACTIVE. SUBJ. INDIC. PASSIVE. SUBJ.  
Present.

moneo, <i>I warn.</i>	moneam	moneor	monear
monēs, <i>you warn.</i>	moneās	monēris (re)	moneāris (re)
monet, <i>he warns.</i>	moneat	monētur	moneātur
monēmus	moneāmus	monēmur	moneāmur
monētis	moneātis	monēmini	moneāmini
monēnt	moneānt	monēntur	moneāntur

## Imperfect.

monēbam	monērem	monēbar	monērer
monēbās	monērēs	monēbāris (re)	monērēris (re)
monēbat	monēret	monēbātur	monērētur
monēbāmus	monērēmus	monēbāmur	monērēmur
monēbātis	monērētis	monēbāmini	monērēmini
monēbānt	monērēnt	monēbāntur	monērēntur

## Future.

monēbo	monēbor
monēbis	monēberis (re)
monēbit	monēbitur
monēbimus	monēbimur
monēbitis	monēbimini
monēbunt	monēbuntur

## Perfect.

monuī	monuerim	monitus sum	monitus sim
monuistī	monueris	monitus es	monitus sis
monuit	monuerit	monitus est	monitus sit
monuimus	monuerimus	monitū sumus	monitū simus
monuistis	monueritis	monitū estis	monitū sitis
monuērunt (re)	monuerint	monitū sunt	monitū sint

## Pluperfect.

monueram	monuissē	monitus eram	monitus essem
monuerās	monuissēs	monitus erās	monitus essēs
monuerat	monuisset	monitus erat	monitus esset
monuerāmus	monuissēmus	monitū erāmus	monitū essēmus
monuerātis	monuissētis	monitū erātis	monitū essētis
monuerānt	monuissēnt	monitū erānt	monitū essēnt

## Future Perfect.

monuero	monitus ero
monueris	monitus eris
monuerit	monitus erit
monuerimus	monitū erimus
monueritis	monitū eritis
monuerint	monitū erunt

ACTIVE.		IMPERATIVE.		PASSIVE.
<i>Sing.</i>	<i>Plur.</i>	<i>Sing.</i>		<i>Plur.</i>
PR. monē	monēte	monēre		monēmini
F. monēto	monētōte	monētor		—
	monento	monētor		monentor
INFINITIVE.				
PR. monēre	PF. monuisse	PR. monerī	PF. monitus esse	
F. monitūrūs esse		F. monitum irī (monitus fore)		
PARTICIPLES.				
PR. monēns	FUT. monitūrus	PF. monitus	GER. monendus	
G. monendī, dō, dum	SUPINE. monitum,	monitū		

131. There are nearly 120 simple verbs of this conjugation, most of them denominative verbs of *condition*, having a corresponding noun and adjective from the same root, and an inceptive in -*scō* : as, *caleo, calor, calidus, calesco* ; *timeo, timor, timidus*.

Most of the verbs of the second conjugation form their perfect and supine like *moneo*. The following have *ōvi* and *ōtum* : *deleo, destroy* ; *fleo, weep* ; *neo, spin* ; *vleo, plait* ; and compounds of -*pleo, fill* ; -*oleo, grow*. The remainder are : —

*algeo, alsī, be cold.*  
*ardeo, arsi, ar-, burn.*  
*audeo, ausus sum, dare.*  
*augeo, auxi, auct-, increase.*  
*caveo, cāvi, caut-, care.*  
*censeo, censui, cens-, value.*  
*cicio, civi, cit-, excite.*  
*doceo, docui, doct-, teach.*  
*faveo, fāvi, faut-, favor.*  
*ferveo, fervi (ferbui), glow.*  
*foveo, fōvi, fōt-, cherish.*  
*frigeo, frixi, be cold.*  
*fulgeo, fulsi, shine.*  
*gaudeo, gavīsus sum, rejoice.*  
*haereo, haesi, haes-, cling.*  
*indulgeo, indulsī, indult-, indulge.*  
*jubeo, jussi, juss-, order.*  
*langueo, languī, be faint.*  
*liqueo, liqui (-licui), melt.*  
*lūceo, luxī, -luct-, shine.*  
*lūgeo, luxī, luct-, mourn.*  
*maneo, mansi, mans-, wait.*  
*misceo, cui, mixt- (mist-), mix.*  
*mordeo, momordi, mors-, bite.*

*moveo, mōvi, mōt-, move.*  
*mulceo, mulsi, muls-, soothe.*  
*mulgeo, si (xi), muls- (mulct-), milk.*  
*nīveo, nivi (nixi), wink.*  
*paveo, pāvi, fear.*  
*pendeo, pependi, pens-, hang.*  
*prandeo, prandi, prans-, dine.*  
*rīdeo, rīsi, rīs-, laugh.*  
*sedeo, sēdi, sess-, sit.*  
*soleo, solitus sum, be wont.*  
*sorbeo, sorbui (sorpī), sorpt-, suck.*  
*spondeo, sponōdi, spons-, pledge.*  
*strideo, stridi, whiz.*  
*suādeo, suāsī, suās-, urge.*  
*teneo (-tineo), tenui, tent-, hold.*  
*tergeo, tersi, ters-, wipe.*  
*tondeo, totōndi, tons-, shear.*  
*torqueo, torsi, tort-, twist.*  
*torreo, torrui, tost-, roast.*  
*turgeo, tursi, swell.*  
*urgeo, ursi, urge.*  
*video, vīdi, vis-, see.*  
*voveo, vōvi, vōt-, vow.*

NOTE. — The following (perfect in *ui*) have no supine stem : *arceo, calleo, egeo, flōreo, horreo, pateo, sileo, studeo, timeo*.<sup>1</sup> A few (including *maereo*) have neither perfect nor supine.

<sup>1</sup> So also *caveo*.

## Third Conjugation.

PRINCIPAL PARTS: ACT. tego tegere texī tectum

PASS. tegor tegi tectus sum

INDIC. ACTIVE. SUBJ. INDIC. PASSIVE. SUBJ.

## Present.

tego, <i>I cover.</i>	tegam	tegor	tegar
tegis, <i>you cover.</i>	tegās	tegeris (re)	tegāris (re)
tegit, <i>he covers.</i>	tegat	tegitur	tegātur
tegitur	tegitur	tegitur	tegitur
tegitur	tegitur	tegitur	tegitur
tegitur	tegitur	tegitur	tegitur
tegitur	tegitur	tegitur	tegitur
tegitur	tegitur	tegitur	tegitur
tegitur	tegitur	tegitur	tegitur
tegitur	tegitur	tegitur	tegitur

## Imperfect.

tegēbam	tegerem	tegēbar	tegerer
tegēbās	tegerēs	tegēbāris (re)	tegerēris (re)
tegēbat	tegeret	tegēbātur	tegerētur
tegēbāmur	tegerēmus	tegēbāmur	tegerēmur
tegēbātis	tegerētis	tegēbāmini	tegerēmini
tegēbānt	tegerēnt	tegēbāntur	tegerēntur

## Future.

tegam	tegar
tegēs	tegēris (re)
teget	tegetur
tegemus	tegemur
tegetis	tegetmini
tegent	tegentur

## Perfect.

texī	texerim	tectus sum	tectus sim
texistī	texeris	tectus es	tectus sis
texit	texerit	tectus est	tectus sit
teximus	texerimus	tecti sumus	tecti simus
texistis	texeritis	tecti estis	tecti sitis
texerunt (re)	texerint	tecti sunt	tecti sint

## Pluperfect.

texeram	texissem	tectus eram	tectus essem
texerās	texissēs	tectus erās	tectus essēs
texerat	texisset	tectus erat	tectus esset
texerāmur	texissēmus	tecti erāmus	tecti essēmus
texerātis	texissētis	tecti erātis	tecti essētis
texerānt	texissēnt	tecti erānt	tecti essēnt

## Future Perfect.

texero	tectus ero
texeris	tectus eris
texerit	tectus erit
texerimus	tecti erimus
texeritis	tecti eritis
texerint	tecti erunt

ACTIVE.		IMPERATIVE.		PASSIVE.
<i>Sing.</i>	<i>Plur.</i>	<i>Sing.</i>	<i>Plur.</i>	<i>Plur.</i>
PR. 2. tege, <i>cover.</i>	tegite	tegere		tegimini
F. 2. tegito	tegitōte	tegitōr		—
3. tegito	tegunto	tegitōr		teguntor
INFINITIVE.				
PR. tegere	PF. texisse	PR. tegī	PF. tectus esse	
F. tectūrus esse		F. tectum iri (tectus fore)		
PARTICIPLES.				
PRES. tegens	FUT. tectūrus	PERF. tectus	GER. tegendus	
GER. tegendī, do, dum		SUPINE. tectum, tectū		

Verbs ending in *io*.

capio capere cēpī captum		capior capī captus sum	
Present.			
capio, <i>I take.</i>	capiam	capior	capiar
capis, <i>you take.</i>	capiās	caperis (re)	capiāris (re)
capit, <i>he takes.</i>	capiat	capitur	capiātur
capimus	capiāmus	capimur	capiāmur
capitis	capiātis	capimini	capiāmini
capiunt	capiant	capiuntur	capiantur
Imperfect.			
capiebam	caperem	capiebar	caperer
Future.			
capiam	capiēmus	capiar	capiēmur
capies	capiētis	capieris (re)	capiēmini
capiet	capient	capiētur	capientur
PERF. cēpī cēperim captus sum captus sim			
PLUP. cēperam cēpisse captus eram captus essem			
F. P. cēpero captus ero			
IMP. cape capite capere capimini			
capito capitōte capitor			
capito capiunto capitor			
INFIN. capere cēpisse capī captus esse			
FUT. captūrus esse captum iri			
PART. capiens captūrus captus capiendus			
GER. capiendi, do, dum SUP. captum, tu			

NOTE. — Verbs of the 3d conjugation ending in *io* are the following: *capio, cupio, facio, fodio, fugio, jacio, pario, quatio, rapio, sapio*, with compounds of *-cutio, -licio, -spicio*. For their Principal Parts, see the following list.



132. The following list includes most simple verbs of the third conjugation, classed according to the formation of the Perfect stem.

a. Forming the Perfect stem in s (x) : —

ango, anxi, auct-, *choke*.  
carpo, carpsi, carpt-, *pluck*.  
cēdo, cessi, cess-, *yield*.  
cingo, cinxi, cinct-, *bind*.  
clango, clanxi, *sound*.  
claudio, clausi, claus-, *shut*.  
clepo, clepsi, clept-, *steal*.  
cōmo, compsi, compt-, *comb, deck*.  
coquo, coxi, coct-, *cook*.  
-cutio, -cussi, -cuss-, *shake*.  
dēmo, dempsi, dempt-, *take away*.  
dico, dixi, dict-, *say*.  
dīvido, dīvīsi, dīvīs-, *divide*.  
dūco, duxi, duct-, *guide*.  
figo, fixi, fix-, *fix*.  
fingo [FIG], finxi, fict-, *fashion*.  
flecto, flexi, flex-, *bend*.  
fluo, fluxi, flux-, *flow*.  
frendo, -frēsi, fress-, *gnash*.  
frigo, frixi, frict- (frix-), *fry*.  
gero, gessi, gest-, *carry*.  
laedo, laesi, laes-, *hurt*.  
-licio, -lexi, -lect-, *entice* (ēlicui, cit-).  
lingo, linxi, linct-, *lick*.  
lūdo, lūsi, lūs-, *play*.  
mergo, mersi, mers-, *plunge*.  
mitto, misi, miss-, *send*. [*weave*.]  
necto [NEC], nexi (nexui), nex-, *to*  
nūbo, nupsi, nupt-, *marry*.  
pecto, pexi (pexui), pex-, *comb*.  
pergo, perrexi, perrect-, *go on*.

pingo [PIG], pinxi, pict-, *paint*.  
plaudo, plausi, plaus-, *applaud*.  
plecto, plexi (xui), plex-, *braid*.  
premo, pressi, press-, *press*.  
prōmo, mpsi, mpt-, *bring out*.  
quatio, [-cussi], quass-, *shake*.  
rādo, rāsi, rās-, *scrape*.  
rego, rexi, rect-, *rule*.  
rēpo, repsi, rept-, *creep*.  
rōdo, rōsi, rōs-, *gnaw*.  
sarpo, sarpsi, sarpt-, *prune*.  
scalpo, scalpsi, scalpt-, *scrape*.  
scribo, scripsi, script-, *write*.  
serpo, serpsi, serpt-, *crawl*.  
spargo, sparsi, spars-, *scatter*.  
-spicio, -spexi, -spect-, *view*.  
-stinguo, -stinxi, -stinct-, *quench*.  
stringo, strinxi, strict-, *bind*.  
struo, struxi, struct-, *build*.  
sūmo, sumpsi, sumpt-, *take*.  
surgo, surrexi, surrect-, *rise*.  
tego, texi, tect-, *shelter*.  
temno, tempesi, -tempt-, *despise*.  
tergo, tersi, ters-, *wipe*.  
tingo, tinxi, tinct-, *slain*.  
traho, traxi, tract-, *drag*.  
trūdo, trūsi, trūs-, *thrust*.  
ūro, ussi, ust-, *burn*.  
vādo, -vāsi, -vās-, *go*.  
veho, vexi, vect-, *draw*.  
vīvo, vixi, vict-, *live*.

b. Reduplicated in the Perfect : —

cado, cecidi, cās-, *fall*.  
caedo, cecīdi, caes-, *cut*.  
cano, cecini, cant-, *sing*.  
curro, cucurri, curs-, *run*.  
disco [DIC], didici, (discit-), *learn*.  
-do, -didi, -dit- (as in ab-do, &c.,  
with crēdo, vendo), put [DHA].  
fallo, fefelli, fals-, *deceive*.  
pango [PAG], pēgi (pepigi), pact-,  
*fasten, fix, bargain*.  
parco, parsi, peperci, parcit-, *spare*.

pario, peperi, part- (pariturus), *to*  
*bring forth*.  
pello, pepuli, puls-, *drive*.  
pendo, pependi, pens-, *weigh*.  
posco, poposci, (posciturus), *de-*  
*mand*.  
pungo [PUG], pupugi, punct-, *prick*.  
sisto [STA], stiti, stat-, *stop*.  
tango [TAG], tetigi, tact-, *touch*.  
tendo (TEN), tetendi (-tendi), tens-  
(tent-), stretch. [*beat*.]  
tundo [TUD], tutudi, tuns- (-tūs-),

c. Adding u (v) to the verb-root : —

alo, alui, alt- (alit-), *nourish*.  
cello, -cellui (-culi), -cels-, *push*.  
cerno, -crēvi, -crēt-, *decree*,

colo, colui, cult-, *dwell, till*.  
compesco, compescui, *restrain*.  
consulo, lui, consult-, *consult*.

cresco, crēvi, crēt-, *increase*. [down.  
-cumbo [CUB], cubui, cubit-, *lie*  
depso, dep sui, depst-, *knead*.  
fremo, fremui, fremit-, *roar*.  
furo, furui, *rage*.  
gemo, gemui, gemit-, *groan*.  
gigno [GEN], genui, genit-, *beget*.  
meto, messui, mess-, *reap*.  
molo, molui, molit-, *grind*.  
occulo, occului, occult-, *hide*.  
pasco, pāvi, past-, *feed*.  
pono, [POS], posui, posit-, *put*.  
quiesco, quīēvi, quīēt-, *rest*.

rapio, rapui, rapt-, *seize*.  
scisco, scīvi, scīt-, *decree*.  
sero, sēvi, sat-, *sow*.  
sero, serui, sert-, *entwine*.  
sino, sīvi, sit-, *permit*.  
sperno, sprēvi, sprēt-, *scorn*.  
sterno, strāvi, strāt-, *strew*.  
sterto, stertui (sterti), *snore*.  
strepo, strepui, strepit-, *sound*.  
-suesco, -suēvi, -suēt-, *be wont*.  
texo, texui, text-, *weave*.  
tremo, tremui, tremble.  
vomo, vomui, vomit-, *vomit*.

#### d. Adding IV to the verb-root :—

arcesso, Ivi, arcessit-, *summon*.  
capesso, capessīvi, *undertake*.  
cupio, cupīvi, cupīt-, *desire*.  
incesso, incessīvi, *attack*.  
laccio, laccessīvi, laccessit-, *provoke*.

peto, petīvi, petīt-, *seek*.  
quaero, quaesīvi, quaesīt-, *seek*.  
rudo, rudīvi, rudīt-, *bray*.  
sapio, sapīvi (sapui), *be wise*.  
tero, trīvi, trīt-, *rub*.

#### e. Lengthening the vowel of the root :—

ago, ēgi, act-, *drive*.  
capio, cēpi, capt-, *take*.  
edo, ēdi, ēsum, *eat* (see 140).  
emo, ēmi, empt-, *buy*.  
facio, fēci, fact-, *make*.  
fodio, fōdi, foss-, *dig*.  
frango [FRAG], frēgi, fract-, *break*.  
fugio, fūgi, fugit-, *flee*.  
fundo [FUD], fūdi, fūs-, *pour*.  
jacio, jēci, jact-, *throw*, (-icio, -ject-)

lavo, lāvi, lōt- (laut-), *wash* (reg.  
of 1st conj.).  
lego, lēgi (intel-lexi<sup>2</sup>). lect-, *gather*.  
lino [LI], lēvi (līvi), lit-, *smear*.  
linquo [LIC], -līqui, -lict-, *leave*.  
nosco [GNO], nōvi, nōt- (co-gnit-,  
a-gnit-), *know*.  
rumpo [RUP], rūpi, rupt-, *burst*.  
scabo, scābi, *scratch*.  
vinco [VIC], vīci, vict-, *conquer*.

#### f. Retaining the Present stem or verb root :—

arguo, ui, ūtum, *accuse*.  
bibō, bibi, bibit-, *drink*.  
-cendo, -cendi, -cens-, *kindle*.  
cūdo, -cūdi, -cūs-, *forge*.  
facesso, facessi, facessīt-, *execute*.  
-fendo, -fendi, -fens-, *ward off*.  
findo [FID], fidi,<sup>1</sup> fiss-, *split*.  
īco, īci, ict-, *hit*.  
lambō, lambi, lambit-, *lap*.  
luo, lui, luit-, *wash*.  
mando, mandi, mans-, *chew*.  
nuo, nui, nuit-, *nod*.  
pando, pandi, pans- (pass-), *open*.

pinso, si, pins- (pinst-, pist-), *bruise*.  
prehendo, di, prehens-, *seize*.  
ruo, rui, rut- (ruit-), *fall*.  
scando, scandi, scans-, *climb*.  
scindo [SCID], scidi,<sup>1</sup> sciss-, *tear*.  
sido, sīdi (sēdi), -sess-, *settle*.  
solvo, solvi, solūt-, *pay, loose*.  
strīdo, strīdi, *whiz*.  
vello, velli (vulsi), vuls-, *pluck*.  
verro, verri, vers-, *sweep*.  
verto, verti, vers-, *turn*.  
viso [VID], vīsi, vis-, *visit*.  
volvo, volvi, volūt-, *turn*.

NOTE.—The following have no Perfect or Supine :—*claudio*, (limp), *fatisco*, *fīdo*, (*fīsus*), *fulgo*, *glisco*, *glūbo*, *hisco*, *rabo*, *tollo* (*sustuli*, *sublātum*), *vergo*.

<sup>1</sup> In these the Perfect Stem is the same as the verb root, having lost the reduplication. The reduplication is also lost in most compounds : as, *ap-pello*, *ap-puli* ; *con-cido* (*cado*), *con-cidi*.

<sup>2</sup> So *neglexi*, *dilexi*.

**Fourth Conjugation.**

PRINCIPAL PARTS: ACT. audio audire audīvī audītum

PASS. audior audīrī audītus sum

INDIC. ACTIVE. SUBJ. INDIC. PASSIVE. SUBJ.

**Present.**

audio, <i>I hear.</i>	audiam	audior	audiar
audis, <i>you hear.</i>	audiās	audīris (re)	audiāris (re)
audit, <i>he hears.</i>	audiat	audītur	audiātur
audimus	audiāmus	audimur	audiāmur
auditis	audiātis	audimini	audiāmini
audiunt	audiant	audiuntur	audiantur

**Imperfect.**

audiēbam	audirem	audiēbar	audīrer
audiēbās	audirēs	audiēbāris (re)	audīrēris (re)
audiēbat	audiret	audiēbatur	audīrētur
audiēbāmus	audirēmus	audiēbāmur	audīrēmur
audiēbātis	audirētis	audiēbāmini	audīrēmini
audiēbant	audirent	audiēbantur	audīrentur

**Future.**

audiam	audiar
audiēs	audiēris (re)
audiēt	audiētur
audiēmus	audiēmur
audiētis	audiēmini
audiēnt	audientur

**Perfect.**

audīvī	audiverim	audītus sum	audītus sim
audivistī	audiveris	audītus es	audītus sis
audivit	audiverit	audītus est	audītus sit
audivimus	audiverimus	audīti sumus	audīti simus
audivistis	audiveritis	audīti estis	audīti sitis
audivērunt (re)	audiverint	audīti sunt	audīti sint

**Pluperfect.**

audiveram	audivissem	audītus eram	audītus essem
audiverās	audivissēs	audītus erās	audītus essēs
audiverat	audivisset	audītus erat	audītus esset
audiverāmus	audivissemus	audīti erāmus	audīti essēmus
audiverātis	audivissētis	audīti erātis	audīti essētis
audiverant	audivissent	audīti erant	audīti essent

**Future Perfect.**

audivero	audītus ero
audiveris	audītus eris
audiverit	audītus erit
audiverimus	audīti erimus
audiveritis	audīti eritis
audiverint	audīti erunt

ACTIVE.		IMPERATIVE.	PASSIVE.
<i>Sing.</i>	<i>Plur.</i>	<i>Sing.</i>	<i>Plur.</i>
PR. 2. audī	audite	audire	audimini
F. 2. audīto	audītōte	auditor	—
3. audīto	audiunto	auditor	audiuntor

## INFINITIVE.

PR. audire	Pf. audivisse	PR. audiri	Pf. auditus esse
F. auditūrus esse		F. auditum iri (auditus fore).	

## PARTICIPLES.

PR. audiēns	FUT. auditūrus	Pf. auditus	GER. audiendus
GER. audiendī, dō, dum	SUPINE. auditum, auditū		

133. There are — besides a few deponents and regular derivatives in *ūrio* — about 60 verbs of this conjugation, a large proportion of them being *descriptive* verbs: like —

crocio, <i>croak.</i>	gannio, <i>yelp.</i>	hirrio, <i>snarl.</i>	scatūrio, <i>gush.</i>
cūcūrio, <i>crow.</i>	glūtio, <i>gulp.</i>	mugio, <i>bellow.</i>	tinnio, <i>tinkle.</i>
ēbullio, <i>bubble.</i>	grunnio, <i>grunt.</i>	muttio, <i>mutter.</i>	tussio, <i>cough.</i>
fritinnio, <i>twitter.</i>	hinnio, <i>neigh.</i>	singultio, <i>hiccup.</i>	vagio, <i>cry.</i>

Those verbs not conjugated regularly, like *audio*, are the following: —

amico, amixi (cui), amict-, <i>clothe.</i>	salio (-silio), salui (salii), salt-, <i>leap.</i>
aperio, aperui, apert-, <i>open.</i>	sancio (SAC), sanxi, sanct-, <i>sanction.</i>
comperio, peri, compert-, <i>find.</i>	sarcio, sarsi, sart-, <i>patch.</i>
farcio, farsi, farct-, (-tum), <i>stuff.</i>	sarrio, īvi (ui), itum, <i>hoe.</i>
ferio, <i>strike</i> (no perfect or supine).	sentio, sensi, sens-, <i>feel.</i>
fulcio, fulsi, fult-, <i>prop.</i>	sepelio, sepelīvi, sepult-, <i>bury.</i>
haurio, hausi, haust- (haus-), <i>drain.</i>	sepio, sepsi, sept-, <i>hedge in.</i>
operio, operui, opert-, <i>cover.</i>	singultio, īvi, singultum, <i>sob.</i>
raucio, rausi, raus-, <i>be hoarse.</i>	venio, vēni, vent-, <i>come.</i>
reperio, reperi, rept-, <i>find.</i>	vincio, vinxi, vinct-, <i>bind.</i>

NOTE. — The following have no supine stem (perfect regular): —

caecūtio, <i>to be purblind.</i>	gestio, <i>to be overjoyed.</i>
dēmentio, <i>to be mad</i>	glōcio, <i>to cluck</i> (as a hen).
ferōcio, <i>to be fierce.</i>	ineptio, <i>to play the trifler.</i>

## Parallel Forms.

134. Many verbs have more than one set of forms, of which only one is generally found in classic use: as,

lavo, lavāre, or lavēre, *to wash.*

scateo, scatēre, or scatōre, *to gush forth.*

lūdifico, āre, or lūdīfloor, āri, *to mock.*

## DEPONENT VERBS.

135. Deponent Verbs have the form of the Passive Voice, with an active or reflexive signification : as,

1. *mīror, mīrārī, mīrātus, admire.*
2. *vereor, verērī, veritus, fear.*
3. *sequor, sequī, secūtus, follow.*
4. *potior, potirī, potitus, possess.*

## Indicative.

PRES. <i>mīror</i>	<i>vereor</i>	<i>sequor</i>	<i>potior</i>
<i>mīrārīs (re)</i>	<i>verērīs (re)</i>	<i>sequerīs (re)</i>	<i>potirīs (re)</i>
<i>mīrātur</i>	<i>verētur</i>	<i>sequitur</i>	<i>potitur</i>
<i>mīrāmur</i>	<i>verēmur</i>	<i>sequimur</i>	<i>potimur</i>
<i>mīrāminī</i>	<i>verēminī</i>	<i>sequiminī</i>	<i>potiminī</i>
<i>mīrāntur</i>	<i>verēntur</i>	<i>sequuntur</i>	<i>potiuntur</i>
IMP'T. <i>mīrābar</i>	<i>verēbar</i>	<i>sequēbar</i>	<i>potiēbar</i>
FUT. <i>mīrābor</i>	<i>verēbor</i>	<i>sequar</i>	<i>potiar</i>
PERF. <i>mīrātus sum</i>	<i>veritus sum</i>	<i>secūtus sum</i>	<i>potitus sum</i>
PLUP. <i>mīrātus eram</i>	<i>veritus eram</i>	<i>secūtus eram</i>	<i>potitus eram</i>
F. P. <i>mīrātus ero</i>	<i>veritus ero</i>	<i>secūtus ero</i>	<i>potitus ero</i>

## Subjunctive.

PRES. <i>mīrer</i>	<i>verear</i>	<i>sequar</i>	<i>potiar</i>
IMP'T. <i>mīrārer</i>	<i>verērer</i>	<i>sequerer</i>	<i>potirer</i>
PERF. <i>mīrātus sim</i>	<i>veritus sim</i>	<i>secūtus sim</i>	<i>potitus sim</i>
PLUP. <i>mīrātus essem</i>	<i>veritus essem</i>	<i>secūtus essem</i>	<i>potitus essem</i>
IMP. <i>mīrāre, ātor</i>	<i>verēre, ētor</i>	<i>sequere, itor</i>	<i>potire, itor</i>
INFIN. <i>mīrārī</i>	<i>verērī</i>	<i>sequī</i>	<i>potirī</i>
<i>Fut. mīrātūrus esse</i>	<i>veritūrus esse</i>	<i>secūtūrus esse</i>	<i>potitūrus esse</i>
<i>Pf. mīrātus esse</i>	<i>veritus esse</i>	<i>secūtus esse</i>	<i>potitus esse</i>
PART.			
<i>Pres. mīrāns</i>	<i>verēns</i>	<i>sequēns</i>	<i>potiēns</i>
<i>Fut. mīrātūrus</i>	<i>veritūrus</i>	<i>secūtūrus</i>	<i>potitūrus</i>
<i>Perf. mīrātus</i>	<i>veritus</i>	<i>secūtus</i>	<i>potitus</i>
<i>Ger. mīrāndus</i>	<i>verendus</i>	<i>sequendus</i>	<i>potiendus</i>
<i>GER. mīrāndum</i>	<i>verendum</i>	<i>sequendum</i>	<i>potiendum</i>
<i>SUP. mīrātum, tu</i>	<i>veritum, tu</i>	<i>secūtum, tu</i>	<i>potitum, tu</i>

a. Deponents have the participles of both voices : as,

*sequens, following ; secūtūrus, about to follow.*

*secūtus, having followed ; sequendus, to-be-followed.*

b. The perfect participle of verbs otherwise deponent is often passive : as, *mercātus, bought ; adeptus, gained (or having gained).*

c. The future infinitive is always to be given in the active form : thus of *sequor* it is *secūtūrus esse* (not *secūtum irī*).

d. The gerundive, being passive in meaning, is found only in transitive verbs, or neuter verbs used impersonally: as,

*hoc confitendum est, this must be acknowledged.*  
*morendum est omnibus, all must die.*

e. Most deponents are neuter or reflexive in their meaning, corresponding to what in Greek is called the Middle Voice.

f. Some deponents are occasionally used in a passive signification: as, *oriminor, I accuse* or *I am accused*.

g. About twenty verbs are, with an active meaning, found in both active and passive forms: as, *mereo* or *mereor, I deserve*.

h. More than half of all deponents are of the First Conjugation, and all of these are regular. The following list contains all the irregular deponents:—

adsentior, *īri*, adsensus, *assent*.  
 apiscor, (-ip-), *i*, aptus (-eptus), *get*.  
 expergiscor, *i*, -perrectus, *rouse*.  
 expior, *īri*, expertus, *try*. [*confess*.]  
 fateor (-fiteor), *ēri*, fassus (-fessus),  
 fruor, *i*, fructus (fruitus), *enjoy*.  
 fungor, *i*, functus, *fulfil*.  
 gradior (-gredior), *i*, gressus, *step*.  
 irascor, *i*, irātus, *be angry*.  
 lābor, *i*, lapsus, *fall*.  
 loquor, *i*, locūtus (loquūtus), *speak*.  
 -miniscor, *i*, -mentus, *think*.  
 metior, *īri*, mensus, *measure*. [*die*.]  
 morior, *i* (*īri*), mortuus, (moritūrus),  
 nanciscor, *i*, nactus (nactus), *find*.  
 nascor, *i*, nātus, *be born*.

nītor, *i*, nīsus (nixus), *strive*.  
 obliviscor, *i*, oblitus, *forget*.  
 opperior, *i*, oppertus, *await*.  
 ordior, *īri*, orsus, *begin*. [*rise*.]  
 orior (3d), *īri*, ortus, (oriturus),  
 paciscor, *i*, pactus, *bargain*. [*suffer*.]  
 patior (-petior), *i*, passus (-pessus),  
 -plector, *i*, -plexus, *clasp*.  
 proficiscor, *i*, profectus, *set-out*.  
 queror, *i*, questus, *complain*.  
 reor, *rēri*, ratus, *think*.  
 revertor, *i*, reversus, *return*. [*low*.]  
 sequor, *i*, secūtus (sequūtus), *fol-*  
*tueor*, *ēri*, tuitus (tūtus), *defend*.  
 ulciscor, *i*, ultus, *avenge*.  
 ūtor, *i*, ūsus, *use, employ*.

NOTE.—The passive form *comperior, īri, compertus*, is rarely found for *comperio*. The perfect, &c., of *revertor*, until the time of Augustus, had regularly the active form, *reverti, reverteram*, &c.

i. The following deponents have no supine stem:—

dēvertor, *ti*, *turn aside* (to lodge).  
 diffiteor, *ēri*, *deny*.  
 liquor, *i*, *melt* (neut.).

medeor, *ēri*, *heal*.  
 reminiscor, *i*, *call to mind*.  
 vescor, *i*, *feed upon*.

#### Semi-Deponents.

136. A few verbs having no perfect stem form the tenses of completed action like the passive: these are called *semi-deponents* or *neuter passives*, viz.,

audeo, audēre, ausus, *dare*. gaudeo, gaudēre, gāvīsus, *rejoice*.  
 fido, fidēre, fīsus, *trust*. soleo, solēre, solītus, *be wont*.

a. From *audeo* there is an old subjunctive perfect *ausim*. The form *sōdes* (for *si audes*), *an thou wilt*, is frequent in the dramatists and rare elsewhere.

b. The active forms *vapulāre*, *to be flogged*, and *vēnīre*, *to be sold* (*vēnum īre*, *go to sale*), having a passive meaning, are sometimes called *neutral passives*. To these may be added *fieri* (see 142), *to be made*, and *exsulāre*, *to be banished* (live in exile).

NOTE. — The following verbs are sometimes found as semi-deponents: *jūro*, *jūrātus*; *nūbo*, *nupta*; *placeo*, *placitus*.

[For the regular Derivative Forms, see page 114.]

### Irregular Verbs.

[For *esse* and its compounds, see pp. 67–70.]

137. Several verbs add some of the personal endings of the present tense directly to the root, or combine two roots in their inflection. These are called Irregular Verbs. They are, besides *esse*, the following.

138. *Volo* and its compounds: viz.,

1. *volo*, *velle*, *volui*,<sup>1</sup> *to wish*.

2. *nōlo* (*nōn volo*), *nōlle*, *nōlui*, *to be unwilling*.

3. *mālo* (*magis or mage volo*), *mālle*, *mālui*, *to wish rather*.

These three are inflected as follows: —

#### PRESENT.

INDIC.	SUBJ.	INDIC.	SUBJ.	INDIC.	SUBJ.
<i>volo</i>	<i>velim</i>	<i>nōlo</i>	<i>nōlim</i>	<i>mālo</i>	<i>mālim</i>
<i>vis</i> (for <i>velis</i> )	<i>velis</i>	<i>nōnvis</i>	<i>nōlis</i>	<i>māvis</i>	<i>mālis</i>
<i>vult</i> ( <i>vultis</i> )	<i>velit</i>	<i>nōnvult</i>	<i>nōlit</i>	<i>māvult</i>	<i>mālit</i>
<i>volumus</i>	<i>velimus</i>	<i>nōlumus</i>	<i>nōlimus</i>	<i>mālumus</i>	<i>mālimus</i>
<i>vultis</i> ( <i>vultis</i> )	<i>velitis</i>	<i>nōnvultis</i>	<i>nōlitis</i>	<i>māvultis</i>	<i>mālitis</i>
<i>volunt</i>	<i>velint</i>	<i>nōlunt</i>	<i>nōlint</i>	<i>mālunt</i>	<i>mālint</i>

#### IMPERFECT.

<i>volēbam</i>	<i>vellem</i>	<i>nōlēbam</i>	<i>nōllem</i>	<i>mālēbam</i>	<i>māllem</i>
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#### FUTURE.

<i>volam</i> , <i>volēs</i> , etc.	<i>nōlam</i> , <i>nōlēs</i> , etc.	<i>mālam</i> , <i>mālēs</i> , etc.
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#### PERFECT.

<i>volui</i>	<i>voluerim</i>	<i>nōlui</i>	<i>nōluerim</i>	<i>mālui</i>	<i>māluerim</i>
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#### PLUPERFECT.

<i>volueram</i>	<i>voluissem</i>	<i>nōlueram</i>	<i>nōluissem</i>	<i>mālueram</i>	<i>māluissem</i>
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#### FUTURE PERFECT.

<i>voluero</i>	<i>nōluero</i>	<i>māluero</i>
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<sup>1</sup> The supine stem appears in *vultus*.

IMPERATIVE.

nōlī,	nōlīte, <i>do not.</i>
nōlīto,	nōlītōte, <i>thou shalt not, ye shall not.</i>
nōlīto,	nōlūnto, <i>he shall not, they shall not.</i>

INFINITIVE.

<i>Pres. velle</i>	<i>voluisse</i>	nōlle	nōluisse	mālle	māluisse
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PARTICIPLES.

<i>Pres. volens, willing.</i>	nōlens, <i>unwilling.</i>
<i>Ger. volendi (late).</i>	

139. *Fero, ferre, tūli, lātum*,<sup>1</sup> *to bear.*

ACTIVE.			PASSIVE.		
	INDIC.	SUBJ.		INDIC.	SUBJ.
<i>Pres.</i>					
	fero	feram		feror	ferar
	fers	ferās		ferris	ferāris (re)
	fert	ferat		fertur	ferātur
	ferimus	ferāmus		ferimur	ferāmur
	fertis	ferātis		ferimini	ferāmini
	ferunt	ferant		feruntur	ferantur
<i>Imperf.</i>	ferēbam	ferrem		ferēbar	ferrer
<i>Fut.</i>	feram			ferar	
<i>Perf.</i>	tūli	tulerim		lātus sum	lātus sim
<i>Plup.</i>	tuleram	tulissem		lātus eram	lātus essem
<i>F. Perf.</i>	tulero			lātus ero	
<i>IMP. Pres.</i>	fer	ferre		ferre	ferimini
<i>Fut.</i>	fero	fertōte		fertor	—
	fero	ferunto		fertor	feruntor
<i>INF. Pres.</i>	ferre	<i>Perf.</i> tulisse	<i>Pres.</i> ferri	<i>Perf.</i> lātus esse	
	<i>Fut.</i> lāturus esse		<i>Fut.</i> lātum iri (lātus fore)		
<i>PART. Pres.</i>	ferens	<i>Fut.</i> lāturus	<i>Perf.</i> lātus	<i>Ger.</i> ferendus	
	<i>Ger.</i> ferendi, dō, dum	<i>Sup.</i> lātum, tu			

140. *Edo, edere, ēdi, ēsum, to eat* (regular of third conjugation), has also some forms directly from the root (ED) without a characteristic vowel: viz.,

INDIC.	ACTIVE.	SUBJ.	INDIC.	PASSIVE.	SUBJ.
Present.					
edo	edam (edim)		edor	edar	
edis (ēs)	edās (edīs)		ederis (re)	edāris (re)	
edit (est)	edat (edit)		editur (estur)	edātur	
edimus	edāmus (edīmus)		edimur	edāmur	
editis (estis)	edātis (edītis)		edimini	edāmini	
edunt	edānt (edīnt)		eduntur	edantur	

<sup>1</sup> The perfect *tuli* is for *tetuli* (which sometimes occurs), from TUL in *tollo*, the supine *lātum* for *tlātum* (cf. τλητός).



## Imperfect.

edēbam	ederem (essem)	edēbar	ederer
edēbās	edēres (essēs)	edēbāris (re)	ederēris (re)
edēbat	ederet (esset) etc.	edebātur	ederētur (essōtur)
<i>Fut.</i> edam, edēs, edet, etc.		edar, edēris, edētur, etc.	
<i>Perf.</i> ēdi ēderim		ēsus sum ēsus sim	
<i>Plup.</i> ēderam ēdissem		ēsus eram ēsus essem	
<i>F. Perf.</i> ēdero		ēsus ero	
IMP. ede (ēs) edite (este)		edere edimini	
edito (esto) editōte (estōte)		editor —	
edito (esto) edunto		editor eduntor	
PART. Pres. edens <i>Fut.</i> ēsūrus		<i>Perf.</i> ēsus <i>Ger.</i> edendus	
GER. edendi, o, um		SUP. ēsum, su	

141. *EO, ire, ivi, itum, to go.*<sup>1</sup> The forms of *eo* are used impersonally in the passive; the infinitive *iri* with the supine in *um* making the future infinitive. They are also found in *vōneo*, *to be sold* (i. e. *vōnum eo, go to sale*).

The compounds *adeo, in eo*, and some others, are transitive, and are regularly used also in the passive.

	INDICATIVE.	SUBJUNCTIVE.
<i>Pres. S.</i>	<i>eo, is, it</i>	<i>eam, eās, eat</i>
<i>P.</i>	<i>imus, itis, eunt</i>	<i>eāmus, eātis, eant</i>
<i>Imperf.</i>	<i>ibam, ibās, ibat</i>	<i>irem, irēs, iret</i>
	<i>ibāmus, ibātis, ibant</i>	<i>irōmus, irōtis, irent</i>
<i>Future</i>	<i>ibo, ibis, ibit</i>	
	<i>ibimus, ibitis, ibunt</i>	
<i>Perf.</i>	<i>ivi (ii)</i>	<i>iverim (ierim)</i>
<i>Pluperf.</i>	<i>iveram (ieram)</i>	<i>ivissem (issem)</i>
<i>Fut. Perf.</i>	<i>ivero (iero)</i>	
IMPERAT.	<i>ī, ito, ito; ite, itōte, eunto</i>	
INFIN. Pres.	<i>ire</i>	<i>Perf. ivisse (isse) Fut. itūrus esse</i>
PART. Pres.	<i>iens, euntis</i>	<i>Fut. iturus Ger. eundum (-eundus)</i>

142. *Facio, facere, fēci, factum, to make*, is regular, with these peculiar forms: future perfect *faxo*, perfect subjunctive *faxim*, imperative *fac*. It has for its passive

*fio, fieri, factus sum, to be made, or become*,

of which the tenses of the first stem are regular of the fourth conjugation, but with the subjunctive imperfect *fierem*.

<sup>1</sup> Root *i*, cf. *ειμι*; the *e* stands for *ei* produced by vowel-increase from *i*.

	INDICATIVE.	SUBJUNCTIVE.
<i>Pres. S.</i>	<i>fio, fis, fit</i>	<i>fiam, fiās, fiat</i>
<i>P.</i>	<i>fimus, fitis, fiunt</i>	<i>fiāmus, fiātis, fiant</i>
<i>Imp.</i>	<i>fiēbam, fiēbās, etc.</i>	<i>fierem, fierēs, etc.</i>
<i>Fut.</i>	<i>fiam, fiēs, etc.</i>	
<i>Perf.</i>	<i>factus sum</i>	<i>factus sim</i>
<i>Plup.</i>	<i>factus eram</i>	<i>factus essem</i>
<i>Fut. Perf.</i>	<i>factus ero</i>	
<i>Imperat.</i>	<i>fi, fito, fito; fite, fitōte, fiunto</i>	
<i>Infin.</i>	<i>Pres. fieri</i>	<i>Perf. factus esse</i>
<i>Part.</i>	<i>Perf. factus</i>	<i>Ger. faciendus</i>

a. Most compounds of *facio* with prepositions change *ā* to *i* (present stem), or *ē* (supine stem), and are inflected regularly: as, *conficio, conficere, confēci, confectum, to finish.*

b. Other compounds retain *a*, and have *-fio* in the passive: as, *bene-facio (-fā'cis), -fēci, -factum; pass. benefio, to benefit.*

c. A few isolated forms of *-fio* occur in other compounds: viz.,

<i>confit, it happens.</i>	<i>dēfit, it lacks.</i>	<i>infīt, he begins (to speak).</i>
<i>confiet</i>	<i>dēfiunt</i>	<i>infiunt</i>
<i>confiat</i>	<i>dēfiet</i>	<i>effieri, to be effected.</i>
<i>confieret</i>	<i>dēfiat</i>	<i>interfieri, to perish.</i>
<i>confieri</i>	<i>dēfieri</i>	<i>interfiai, let him perish.</i>

#### Defective Verbs.

143. Some verbs have lost their Present stem, and use only tenses of the Perfect, in which they are inflected regularly. They are —

a. *Coepl*,<sup>1</sup> *I began*; *INFIN. coepisse; FUT. PART. coepturus*. A passive participle *coeptus* is used with the *passive infinitive*. For the Present, *incipio* is used.

b. *Odi, I hate*; <sup>2</sup> with the participles *ōsus, hating or hated (perōsus, utterly hateful), ōsūrus, likely to hate.*

c. *Memini, I remember*; <sup>3</sup> with the Imperative *memento, mementōte*; *Part. meminens*.

NOTE. — *Odi* and *memini*, having a Perfect form with a present meaning, are called *preteritive verbs*. *Novi* and *consuevi* have present meaning.

<sup>1</sup> Root CO-AP as in *apiscor*.

<sup>2</sup> Root OD in *ōdium*.

<sup>3</sup> Root MEN, as in *mens*.

144. Many verbs have only the Present stem, and in many the simple verb is incomplete, but the parts appear in the compounds. Some occur very commonly, but only in a few forms: as,

a. *Aio*,<sup>1</sup> *I say*:

INDIC. *Pres.* *āio, ais, ait*; — — — *āiunt*

*Imperf.* *āiēbam, (aiēbam), āiēbās, &c.*

SUBJ. *Pres.* *āiās, āiat, āiant*

IMPERAT. *ai.* — PART. *āiens*

b. *Inquam*, *say* (used only, except in poetry, in direct quotations, as the English *quoth*, which is perhaps from the same root):

IND. *Pres.* *inquam, inquis, inquit*

*inquimus, inquitis (late), inquitunt*

*Imperf.* *inquiēbat.* — *Fut.* *inquiēs, et.* — *Pf.* *inquisti, inquit.*

IMPERAT. *inque, inquito.*

c. *Fāri*, *to speak*, forms the periphrastic tenses regularly: as, *fātus sum, eram, &c.* It has also —

IND. *Pres.* *fātur, fantur.* — *Fut.* *fābor, fābitur.*

IMPERAT. *fāre.* — INFIN. *fārī.* — PART. *fanti* (with the compound *infans*, usually as a noun), *fātus.* — *Ger.* *fandi, -do.*

GERUND. *fandus, to be spoken of* (with the compounds *infandus, nefandus, unspeakable, abominable*). — SUPINE, *fātū.*

Several compounds with the prepositions *ex, prae, pro, inter*, occur: as, *praefatur, affāri, prōfātus, interfatur, &c.*

d. *Quaeso*, *I ask, beg* (an original form of *quaero*), has —  
*quaeso, quaesūmus, quaesere, quaesens.*

e. *Ovāre*, *to triumph*, has the following:

*ovat, ovet, ovāret; ovans, ovandi, ovātus, ovātūrus.*

f. A few are found chiefly in the Imperative: as,

*salve, salvēte, hail!* also *salvēre* (from *salvus*).

*avē (or havē), avēte, avēto, hail or farewell.*

*cedo, ceditte (cette), give, tell.*

*apage! begone!* (properly a Greek word).

<sup>1</sup> Root AGH found in *adagium* and in *nego*, which has passed into the first conjugation.

*g. Queo, I can, nequeo, I cannot, are conjugated like eo. They are rarely used except in the Present.*

	INDIC.	SUBJ.	INDIC.	SUBJ.
<i>Pres.</i>	queo quis quit quimus quitis queunt	queam (regular)	nequeo nonquis nequit nequimus nequitis nequeunt	nequeam (regular)
<i>Imperf.</i>	quibam quibat quibant	quirem quiret quirent	nequibam nequibat nequibant	nequirem
<i>Fut.</i>	quibo quibunt	—	— nequibunt	—
<i>Perf.</i>	quivi — quivit quiverunt	— — quiverit	nequivi — nequivist nequivit nequiverunt	—
<i>Plup.</i>	—	quissent	—	nequisset
INFIN.	quire	quivisse (quisse)	nequire	nequivisse
PART.	quiens, queuntis	—	nequiens	—

[A few passive forms occur in old writers.]

#### Impersonal Verbs.

145. Many verbs, from their meaning, appear only in the *third person singular*, with the *infinitive* and *gerund*. These are called Impersonal Verbs.<sup>1</sup> Their synopsis may be given as follows:—

i. it is plain.	ii. it is allowed.	iii. it chances	iv. it results.	Pass. i. it is fought.
constat	licet	accidit	evenit	pugnatur
constabat	licēbat	accidēbat	eveniēbat	pugnābatur
constabit	licēbit	accidet	eveniet	pugnābitur
constitit	licuit	accidit	evēnit	pugnatum est
constiterat	licuerat	acciderat	evēnerat	pugnatum erat
constiterit	licuerit	acciderit	evēnerit	pugnatum erit
constet	liceat	accidat	eveniat	pugnētur
constāret	licēret	accideret	eveniret	pugnārētur
constiterit	licuerit	acciderit	evēnerit	pugnatum sit
constitisset	licuisset	accidisset	evēnisset	pugnatum esset
constāre	licēre	accidere	evenire	pugnārī
constitisse	licuisse	accidisse	evēnisse	pugnatum esse
-stātūrum esse	liciturum esse	—	eventūrum esse	pugnatum iri

<sup>1</sup> With impersonal verbs the word *it* is used in English, having usually no representative in Latin, though *id*, *hoc*, *illud*, are often used nearly in the same way.

146. Impersonal Verbs may be classified as follows : —

a. Verbs expressing the *operations of nature*: as, *pluit, it rains*; *ningit, it snows*; *grandinat, it hails*; *fulgurat, it lightens*; *vesperāscit* (incept.), *it grows late*.

In these, no subject is distinctly thought of; though sometimes the name of a deity is expressed; and, in poetic use, of other agents also: as, *fundae saxa pluunt, the slings rain stones*.

b. Verbs of *feeling*, where the person who is the proper subject becomes the object, as if himself affected by the feeling expressed in the verb. Such are, — *miseret, it grieves*; *paenitet* (*poenitet*), *it repents*; *piget, it disgusts*; *pudet, it shames*; *taedet, it wearies*: as, *miseret me, I pity* (*it distresses me*).

Such verbs often have also a passive form: as, *misereor, I pity* (*am moved by pity*); and occasionally other parts: as, *libens, licens, paeniturus, paenitendus, pudendus, pertaesum est*.

c. By a similar construction, the *passive of intransitive verbs* is very often used impersonally: as, *pugnātur, there is fighting*; *itur, some one goes*; *parcitur mihi, I am spared*.<sup>1</sup>

d. Verbs which have a *phrase or clause* as their subject: as, *accidit* (*contingit, evenit, obtingit, obvenit, fit*), *it happens*; *libet, it pleases*; *licet, it is permitted*; *certum est, it is resolved*; *constat, it is clear*; *placet, vidētur, it seems good*; *debet, it is becoming*; *delectat, juvat, it delights*; *oportet, necesse est, it is needful*; *praestat, it is better*; *interest, rēfert, it concerns*; *vacat, there is leisure*; *restat, superest, it remains*.

NOTE. — Many of these verbs may be used personally. *Libet* and *licet* have also the passive forms *libitum* (*licitum*) *est*, &c.

#### Periphrastic Forms.

147. The following periphrastic forms are found in the inflection of the verb: —

a. The so-called “Periphrastic Conjugations” (see p. 77).

b. The tenses of completed action in the Passive formed by the tenses of *esse* with the Perfect Participle.

c. The Future Infinitive Passive, formed — 1. by the infinitive passive of *eo, to go*, used impersonally with the Supine in *um*; 2. by *fore* (or *futūrum esse*), with the Perfect participle; 3. by *fore* with *ut* and the subjunctive.

<sup>1</sup> This use of the passive proceeds from its original *reflexive* meaning, the ac- being regarded as *accomplishing itself* (compare the French *cela se fait*).

## Chapter VII. — *Particles.*

NOTE. — What are called PARTICLES — that is, all Adverbs, Prepositions, and Conjunctions — are real or extinct *case-forms*, or else *compounds* and *phrases*. In classification, Particles cannot always be distinguished; many prepositions and conjunctions being also reckoned among adverbs.

### I. — ADVERBS.

#### Derivation.

148. The regular adverbs of manner are formed from Adjectives,<sup>1</sup> as follows : —

*a.* Adjectives of the *first and second declensions* change the characteristic vowel of the stem into ē (originally an ablative in *ǎ*) : as, from *cārus*, *dear*, *cārē*, *dearly*.<sup>2</sup>

*b.* Adjectives of the *third declension* add *-ter*<sup>3</sup> to the stem. All are treated as *i*-stems, except those in *nt* (properly participles), which lose the *t* : as, *fortiter*, *bravely*; *ācritēr*, *eagerly*; *vigilanter*, *watchfully*; *prūdentēr*, *prudently*; *frequentēr*, *numerously*.

*c.* Some adverbs of the former class have both forms : as, from *dūrus*, *dūrē*, *dūrītēr*; from *miser*, *miserē*, *miserītēr*.<sup>4</sup>

*d.* The *neuter accusative* of adjectives and pronouns is often used as an adverb (strictly a *cognate accusative*, see Syntax) : as, *multum*, *much*; *facile*, *easily*; *ācrius*, *more keenly*.

*e.* The *ablative neuter* or (less commonly) *feminine* is used adverbially : as, *falsō*, *falsely*; *citō*, *quickly*; *rectā* (*viā*), *straight* (*straightway*); *quā* (*parte*), *where*; *crebro*, *frequently*.

NOTE. — In many Adverbs and other Particles the case-form is less obvious, and in some is doubtful. Examples may be seen in the following : —

*a.* Accusative forms : *actūtum*, *nōn* (*nē ūnum*), *iterum* (comparative of *is*).

<sup>1</sup> For the comparison of these adverbs, see 92 (p. 45).

<sup>2</sup> So *abundē*, *saepe*, *prope*, from adjectives not in use.

<sup>3</sup> This suffix is of uncertain origin, probably the same as in the Greek *-τερος*, and in *alter*, *uter*; and, if so, these are *neuter accusatives*.

<sup>4</sup> So *aliter* from *alius*, — old stem *ali-*.

β. Ablative forms : *contrā, quī, aliquī*.

γ. Datives of adjectives and pronouns : *as, quo, adeo, ultro, citro, retro* (the last three being comparatives of *uls, cis, re*) ; *illōc, illōce*, weakened to *illuc*.

δ. Locative forms : *ibi, ubi, peregre (peregrī), hīc, interim, deinde, tamen*, and the compounds *extrinsecus, hodie, perendie, olim (olus)*.

ε. Feminine Accusatives : *statim, saltim* (generally in the form *saltem*), *palam, perperam, tam, quam, nam* (which may be neuters).

ζ. Plural Accusatives, neuter or feminine, *frustrā, (?) aliās, forās*.

η. Of uncertain formation : (1) those in *-tus* (usually preceded by *i*), as : *penitus, funditus, divinitus*, — which are ablative in meaning ; (2) those in *-dem, -dam, -do* (in *quan-do, do-nec*), *dum, jam* (perhaps from the same root with *dies, diu, &c.*).

θ. Phrases or Clauses which have grown into adverbs : *antē* (acc. pl. or abl.), *postmodo, dēnuo (de novo), prorsus, quotannis, quamobrem, cominus, eminus, obviam, pridem, forsan, forsitan (fors sit an), scilicet (scire licet)*.  
[For Numeral Adverbs, see p. 49.]

#### Classification.

149. Adverbs, other than those regularly formed from adjectives, are classified as follows : —

##### a. ADVERBS OF PLACE.<sup>1</sup>

<i>hīc, here</i>	<i>hūc, hither</i>	<i>hinc, hence</i>	<i>hāc, by this way</i>
<i>ibi, there</i>	<i>eō, thither</i>	<i>inde, thence</i>	<i>eā, by that way</i>
<i>istic, "</i>	<i>istūc, "</i>	<i>istinc, "</i>	<i>istā, "</i>
<i>illic, "</i>	<i>illūc, "</i>	<i>illinc, "</i>	<i>illā (illāc), "</i>
<i>ubi, where</i>	<i>quō, whither</i>	<i>unde, whence</i>	<i>quā, by what way</i>
<i>alicubi, somewhere</i>	<i>aliquō, to, &amp;c.</i>	<i>alicunde, from, &amp;c.</i>	<i>aliquā, by, &amp;c.</i>
<i>ibidem, in the same place</i>	<i>eōdem, "</i>	<i>indidem, "</i>	<i>eādem, "</i>
<i>alibi, elsewhere</i>	<i>aliō, "</i>	<i>aliunde, "</i>	<i>aliā, "</i>
<i>ubiubi, wherever</i>	<i>quōquō, "</i>	<i>undecunque, "</i>	<i>quāquā, "</i>
<i>ubivīs, anywhere</i>	<i>quōvīs, "</i>	<i>undique, "</i>	<i>quāvīs, "</i>
<i>sicubi, if anywhere</i>	<i>siquō, "</i>	<i>sicunde, "</i>	<i>siquā, "</i>
<i>necubi, lest anywhere</i>	<i>nequō, "</i>	<i>necunde, "</i>	<i>nequā, "</i>

*usquam, anywhere ; nusquam, nowhere ; ultro, beyond (or freely, i.e. beyond what is required) ; citro, to this side ; intro, inwardly ; porro, further on.*

*quorsum (quo vorsum, whither turned) ? to what end ? horsum, this way ; prorsum, forward (prorsus, utterly) ; introrsum, inwardly ; retrorsum, backward ; sursum, upward ; deorsum, downward ; seorsum, apart ; aliorsum, another way.*

<sup>1</sup> The demonstrative adverbs *hic, ibi, istic, illic*, and their correlatives, correspond in signification with the pronouns *hic, is, iste, ille* (see 102), and are often equivalent to these pronouns with a preposition : as, *inde = ab eo*, &c. So the relative or interrogative *ubi* corresponds with *qui (quis)*, *ali-cubi* with *aliquis*, *ubiubi* with *quisquis*, *si-cubi* with *siquis* (see 104, 105, with the table of Correlatives 106). All these adverbs are originally case-forms of pronouns.

## b. ADVERBS OF TIME.

quando? *when?* (interrog.); cum (quom, quum), *when* (relat.); ut, *as*.  
 nunc, *now*; tunc (tum), *then*; mox, *presently*; jam, *already*; dum, *while*.  
 primum (primo), *first*; deinde (posteā), *next after*; postrēmum (post-  
 rēmō), *finally*; posteāquam, *postquam, when (after that)*.  
 umquam (unquam), *ever*; numquam (nunquam), *never*; semper, *always*.  
 aliquando, *at some time, at length*; quandoque (quandocumque), *whenever*.  
 quotiens (quoties), *how often*; totiens, *so often*; aliquotiens, *a number*  
 quotidie, *every day*; in dies, *from day to day*. [of times.  
 nondum, *not yet*; necdum, *nor yet*; vixdum, *scarce yet*; quam primum,  
*as soon as possible*; saepe, *often*; crebro, *frequently*; jam non, *no longer*

## c. ADVERBS OF DEGREE OR CAUSE.

quam, *how, as*; tam, *so*; quamvis, *however much, although*; quomodo,  
 cur, quārē, *why*; quod, quia, *because*; eō, *therefore*. [how.  
 ita, sic, *so*; ut (uti), *as, how*; utut, utcumque, *however*.  
 quamquam (quanquam), *although, and yet*; et, etiam, quoque, *even, also*.

## d. INTERROGATIVE PARTICLES.

an, -ne, anne, utrum, utrumne, num, *whether*.  
 nonne, annon, *whether not*; numquid, ecquid, *whether at all* (ecquid  
 intellegis? *have you any idea?*)  
 utrum (num), -ne, *whether*; . . . an (annon, necne), *or*.  
 — " . . . an, -ne "

## e. NEGATIVE PARTICLES.

non, *not* (in simple denial); haud (hau, haut), *minime, not* (in contradic-  
 tion); nē, *not* (in prohibition); neve, neu, *nor*; nedum, *much less*.  
 nē, *lest*; neque, nec, *nor*; nē . . . quidem, *not even*.  
 non modo . . . vērū (sed) etiam, *not only . . . but also*.  
 non modo . . . sed ne . . . quidem, *not only NOT . . . but not even*.  
 sī minus, *if not*; quō minus (quōminus), *so as not*.  
 quīn (relat.), *but that*; (interrog.), *why not?*  
 ne, nec (in compos.), *not*; nescio; *I know not*; nego, *I say no* (āio, *I say*  
*yes*); nēmo (ne hōmo), *no one*; ne quis, *lest any one*; necopinātus,  
*unexpected*; neque enim, *for . . . not*.

150. Two negatives are equivalent to an affirmative: **as,**

**nēmo non audiet, every one will hear.**

a. This is especially frequent with compounds of **non**: **as, non-**  
**nullus** (= *aliquis*), *some* (at any rate); **nonnihil** (= *aliquid*),  
*something*; **nonnēmo** (= *aliquot*), *sundry persons*; **nonnum-**  
**quam** (= *aliquotiens*), *sometimes*; **necnon**, *also*.

b. On the other hand, **nēmo non, nullus non, every one; nihil**  
**non, every thing; numquam non, always, &c.**

151. The following require special notice: —

a. **Etiam** (et-jam) is stronger than **quoque**, and usually precedes  
 the emphatic word, while **quoque** follows it: **as,**

terret etiam nos ac minatur (Rosc. Am. 40), *us also he terrifies and*  
*threatens.*

hoc quoque maleficium (id.), *this crime too.*



**b. Nuno** means definitely *the present time*; **jam**, *already* (or, with the future, *presently*); with negatives, *no longer*, with reference to the past. **Tunc**, *then*, is a strengthened form of **tum**, which is correlative with **cum**, *when*: as,

*non est jam lenitati locus, there is no longer room for mercy.*

*quod jam erat institutum, which had come to be a practice.*

*nunc quidem deleta est, tunc florebat (Lael. 4), now ('tis true) she [Greece] is ruined, then she was in her glory.*

*tum cum regnabat, at the time [when] he reigned.*

**c. Certō** means *certainly*; **certe** (usually), *at any rate*; as, **certo scio**, *I know for a certainty*; **ego certe**, *I at least*.

**d. Primum**, *first* (*first in order*, or *for the first time*), is usually followed by **deinde**, **tum**, . . . **denique**. Thus —

*primum de genere belli, deinde de magnitudine, tum de imperatore deligendo (Manil. 2), first of the kind of war, next of its magnitude, then of the choice of commander.*

The adjective forms of **primus** are used of persons and things with respect to other persons and things. **Primum** and **primo** (adverbs) rather modify the predicate: **primum**, as *first of a series*; **primo** (more unconnected), giving prominence to the change of time.

**e. Quidem**, *indeed*, emphasizes, and often has a *concessive* meaning, especially when followed by **sed**, **autem**, &c.: **nuno quidem**, *now, 'tis true*. With **ne . . . quidem**, *not even* or *not . . . either*, the emphatic word must stand between: as,

*senex ne quod speret quidem habet (C. M. 19), an old man has NOT any thing to hope for EVEN.*

*sed ne Jugurtha quidem quietus erat (Jug. 51), but Jugurtha was not quiet EITHER.*

## 2.—PREPOSITIONS.

**152.** The Latin Prepositions are regularly used with some *special case* of a noun or pronoun, either the accusative or the ablative.<sup>1</sup>

<sup>1</sup> Prepositions are not originally distinguished from Adverbs in form or meaning, but only specialized in use, as above. Most of them are true case-forms: as, *contra*, *infra*, *supra* (comparative abl.), *circum*, *coram*, *cum* (acc.), *circiter*, *prae*ter (compare 88 d). Of the remainder, *versus* is a participle of *verto*, rarely used without another preposition; *adversus* is a compound; while the origin of the brief forms *ab*, *ad*, *de*, *ex*, *ob*, *trans*, is obscure and doubtful.

a. The following are used with the Accusative : —

<b>ad</b> , to.	<b>ergā</b> , towards.	<b>post</b> , after.
<b>adversus</b> , against.	<b>extrā</b> , outside.	<b>praeter</b> , beyond.
<b>adversum</b> , towards.	<b>infā</b> , below.	<b>prope</b> , near.
<b>ante</b> , before.	<b>inter</b> , among.	<b>propter</b> , on account of.
<b>apud</b> , at, near.	<b>intrā</b> , inside.	<b>secundum</b> , next to.
<b>circā</b> , or	<b>juxtā</b> , near.	<b>suprā</b> , above.
<b>circum</b> , around.	<b>ob</b> , on account of.	<b>trans</b> , across.
<b>circiter</b> , about.	<b>penes</b> , in the power.	<b>ultrā</b> , on the further side.
<b>cis</b> , <b>citrā</b> , this side.	<b>per</b> , through.	<b>versus</b> , towards.
<b>contrā</b> , against.	<b>pōne</b> , behind.	

b. The following are used with the Ablative : —

<b>ā</b> , <b>āb</b> , <b>abs</b> , away from, by.	<b>ē</b> , <b>ex</b> , out of.
<b>absque</b> , without, but for.	<b>prae</b> , in comparison with.
<b>cōram</b> , in presence of.	<b>prō</b> , in front of, for.
<b>cum</b> , with.	<b>sine</b> , without.
<b>dē</b> , from.	<b>tenus</b> , up to, as far as.

c. The following may be used with either case, but strictly with a difference in meaning : —

**in**, into, in ; **sub**, under ; **subter**, beneath ; **super**, above.

**In** and **sub**, when followed by the Accusative, indicate *motion to*, when by the Ablative, *rest in*, a place.

153. Some idiomatic uses of the prepositions may be seen in the following : —

**A, ab**, AWAY FROM<sup>1</sup> (opposite of **ad**) : — **prope ab urbe**, near (not far from) the city ; **liberare ab**, to set free from ; **occisus ab hoste** (periit ab hoste), slain by an enemy ; **ab hac parte**, on this side ; **ab re ejus**, to his advantage ; **a republica**, for the interest of the state.

**Ad**, TO, TOWARDS, AT, NEAR : — **ad tempus**, at the (fit) time ; **adire ad rempublicam**, to go into public life ; **ad petendam pacem**, to seek peace ; **ad hunc modum**, in this way ; **quem ad modum**, how, as ; **ad centum**, near a hundred ; **ad hoc**, besides ; **omnes ad unum**, all to a man.

**Ante**, IN FRONT, BEFORE : — **ante urbem captam**, before the city was taken ; **ante diem quintum** (A.D.V.). Kal., the fifth day before the Calends (the 3d day before the last of the month) ; **ante quadriennium**, four years before or ago ; **ante tempus**, too soon.

**Apud**, AT, BY, AMONG, rarely of places : — **apud populum**, before the people ; **apud aliquem**, at one's house ; **apud se**, at home, or in his senses ; **apud Ciceronem**, in Cicero (in his works).

<sup>1</sup> **ab** signifies direction from the object, but often towards the speaker ; compare **de** and **ex**.

**Circum, circa, circiter** (stem as in *circus, circle*), ABOUT, AROUND : *circum* haec loca, *hereabout*; *circa* se habent, *they have with them*. Of time or number, *circa* or *circiter* (not *circum*): — *circa* eandem horam, *about the same hour*; *circiter* passus mille, *about a mile*.

**Contra** (abl. comp. of *cum*), OPPOSITE, AGAINST : — *contra* Italiam, *over against Italy*; *haec contra*, *this in reply*; *contra* autem, *but on the other hand* (adv.); *quod contra*, *whereas on the other hand* (adv.).

**Cum**, WITH (together in place or time) : — *cum* malo suo, *to his own hurt*; *configere cum* hoste, *to fight with the enemy*; *esse cum* telo, *to go armed*; *cum* silentio, *in silence*.

**De**, FROM, DOWN FROM, CONCERNING : — *unus de* plebe, *one of the people*; *qua de* causa, *for which reason*; *de* improvviso, *of a sudden*; *de* industria, *on purpose*; *de* integro, *anew*; *de* tertia vigilia, *just at midnight* (starting at the third watch); *de* mense Decembri navigare, *to sail as early as December*.

**Ex, e**, FROM (the midst, opposed to *in*). OUT OF : — *ex* hoc die, *from this day forth*; *ex* consulatu, *right after his consulship*; *ex* ejus sententia, *according to his opinion*; *ex* aequo, *justly*; *ex* improvviso, *unexpectedly*; *ex* tua re, *to your advantage*; *magna ex* parte, *in a great degree*; *ex* equo pugnare, *to fight on horseback*; *ex* usu, *expedient*.

**In** with acc., INTO (opp. to *ex*) : — *amor in* (erga or adversus) patrem, *love for his father*; *in* aram confugit, *he fled to the altar* (on the steps or merely to); *in* dies, *from day to day*; *in* longitudinem, *in length*; *in* haec verba jurare, *to swear to these words*; *hunc in* modum, *in this way*; *oratio in* Catilinam, *a speech against Catiline*; *in* perpetuum, *for ever*; *in* pejus, *for the worse*; *in* diem vivere, *to live from hand to mouth*. With abl., IN, ON, AMONG : — *in* urbe esse, *to be in town*; *in* tempore, *in season*; *in* scribendo, *while writing*; *est mihi in* animo, *I have it in mind*; *in* ancoris, *at anchor*; *in* hoc homine, *in the case of this man*.

**Infra**, BELOW : — *infra* caelum, *under the sky*; *infra* Homerum, *later than Homer*; *infra* iii. pedes, *less than three feet*.

**Inter**, BETWEEN (with two acc.), AMONG : — *inter* bibendum, *while drinking*; *inter* se loquuntur, *they talk together*; *inter* nos, *between ourselves*.

**Ob**, TOWARDS (in place), ON ACCOUNT OF : — *ob* oculos, *before the eyes*; *ob* eam causam, *for that reason*; *quam ob* rem, *wherefore*.

**Per**, THROUGH (in any direction) : — *per* urbem ire, *to go through the city*; *licet per* me, *you may for all me*; *per* jocum, *in jest*.

**Prae**, IN FRONT, BY REASON OF : — *prae* se ferre, *to carry before him* (exhibit or make known); *prae* gaudio conticuit, *he was silent for joy*; *prae* magnitudine corporum suorum, *in comparison with their own bigness*.

**Praeter**, BY (on the outside), BESIDES : — *praeter* spem, *beyond hope*; *praeter* oculos, *before the eyes*.

**Pro**, IN FRONT OF, IN BEHALF OF, INSTEAD OF (facing the same way) : — *pro* populo, *in presence of the people*; *pro* lege, *in defence of the*

*law ; pro hac vice, for this once ; pro consule, in place of consul ; pro viribus, considering his strength ; pro virili parte, to the best of one's ability.*

**Propter**, NEAR, BY :—*propter te sedet, he sits next you ; propter metum, through fear.*

**Secundum**, JUST BEYOND, FOLLOWING (part. of sequor) :—*ite secundum me (Plaut.), go behind me ; secundum litus, near the shore ; secundum flumen, along the stream (secundo flumine, down stream) ; secundum naturam, according to nature.*

**Sub**, UNDER :—*sub montem succedere, to come close to the hill ; sub noctem, towards night ; sub lucem, near daylight ; sub haec dicta, at these words ; sub Jove, in the open air ; sub monte, at the foot of a hill ; sub eodem tempore, about that time.*

**Super**, ABOVE, OVER :—*vulnus super vulnus, wound upon wound ; super Indos, beyond the Hindoos ; super tali re, about such an affair ; satis superque, enough and more.*

**Supra** (comparative), ON THE TOP :—*supra hanc memoriam, before our remembrance ; supra morem more than usual ; supra quod, besides.*

**Ultra**, BEYOND (on the further side) :—*ultra eum numerum, more than that number ; ultra fidem, incredible ; ultra modum, immoderate ; non plus ultra, nothing further.*

[For Prepositions in Compounds, see 170.]

### 3.—CONJUNCTIONS.

#### Classification.

**154.** Conjunctions like adverbs are petrified cases of nouns or pronouns. They are more numerous, and their use is much more accurately distinguished, in Latin than in English. They are divided into two classes, viz. :—

*a.* CO-ORDINATE :—these include Copulative (AND), Disjunctive (OR), Adversative (BUT), Causal (FOR), Illative (THEREFORE).

*b.* SUBORDINATE :—these are Conditional (IF),—including Comparative (AS IF), Concessive (THOUGH, EVEN IF),—Temporal (WHEN), Consecutive (SO THAT), Final (IN ORDER THAT).

**155.** The following list <sup>1</sup> includes most of the conjunctions and conjunctive phrases in common use :—

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<sup>1</sup> Some of these have been included in the classification of Adverbs, and a list of Interjections has been added. See also list of Correlatives, page 57.

## Co-ordinate.

## A. COPULATIVE AND DISJUNCTIVE.

et, -que, atque (ac), *and*.

et . . . et; et . . . -que (atque); -que . . . et; -que . . . -que (poet.),  
*both . . . and.*

etiam, quoque, neque non (necnon), quinetiam, itidem (item), *also*.

cum . . . tum; tum . . . tum, *both . . . and; not only . . . but also*.

quâ . . . quâ, *on one hand, on the other hand*.

modo . . . modo, *now . . . now*.

aut . . . aut; vel . . . vel (-ve), *either . . . or*.

sive (seu) . . . sive, *whether . . . or*.

nec (neque) . . . nec (neque); neque . . . nec; nec . . . neque (rare),  
*neither . . . nor*.

et . . . neque, *both . . . and not*.

nec . . . et; nec (neque) . . . -que, *neither . . . and*.

## B. ADVERSATIVE.

sed, autem, verum, vero, at, atqui *but*.

tamen, attamen, sed tamen, verumtamen, *but yet, nevertheless*.

nihilominus, *none the less*.

at vero, enimvero, *but (for) in truth*.

ceterum, *on the other hand, but*.

C. CAUSAL AND ILLATIVE.<sup>1</sup>

nam, namque, enim, etenim, *for*.

quia, quod, *because*.

quoniam, quippe, cum (quom), quando, quandoquidem, siquidem,  
utpote, *since, inasmuch as*.

propterea ( . . . quod), *for this reason ( . . . that)*.

quapropter, quare, quamobrem, quocirca, unde, *wherefore, whence*.

ergo, igitur, itaque, ideo, idcirco, proinde, *therefore, accordingly*.

Subordinate.<sup>2</sup>

## D. CONDITIONAL.

si, *if*; sin, *but if*; nisi (ni), *unless, if not*; quod si, *but if*.

modo, dum, dummodo, si modo, *if only, provided*.

dummodo ne (dum ne, modo ne), *provided only not*.

## E. COMPARATIVE.

ut, uti, sicut, velut, prout, praeut, ceu, *as, like as*.

tamquam (tanquam), quasi, utsi, ac si, *as if*.

quam, atque (ac), *as, than*.

<sup>1</sup> Several of these are often used also to introduce subordinate clauses.

<sup>2</sup> See Syntax, Chap. V., for the use of these particles in subordinate clauses.

F. CONCESSIVE.<sup>1</sup>

*etsi, etiamsi, tametsi, tamenetsi, quamquam (quanquam), although.*  
*quamvis, quantumvis, quamlibet, however much.*  
*licet (properly a verb), ut, cum (quom, quum), though, suppose, whereas.*

G. TEMPORAL.

*cum (quom), cum primum, ubi, ut, ut primum, postquam, when.*  
*prius . . quam, ante . . quam, before ; non ante . . quam, not . . until.*  
*quando, simul atque (simul ac), simul, as soon as.*  
*dum, usque dum, donec, quoad, until.*

H. CONSECUTIVE AND FINAL.

*ut (uti), quo, ut, so that, in order that.*  
*ne, ut ne, lest (in order that not) ; neve (neu), nor.*  
*quin (after negatives), quominus, but that (so as to prevent).*

Interjections.

*O, en, ecce, chem, papae, vah (of astonishment).*  
*io, evae, evoe (of joy).*  
*heu, eheu, vae, alas ! (of sorrow).*  
*heus, eho, ehodum, ho ! (of calling).*  
*eia, euge (of praise).*  
*proh (of attestation) : as, proh pudor, shame !*

156. The following are the conjunctions whose meaning or use chiefly requires to be noticed : —

*a. Et, and, connects independent words or clauses ; -que (enclitic) combines closely into one connected whole ; atque (sometimes ac before consonants) adds with emphasis. In the second member, and not is expressed by neque or nec.*

*Atque (ac), as, than, is also used after words of comparison and likeness : as, idem, the same ; simul, as soon ; aliter, otherwise.*

*b. Sed and vērū or vērō (more forcible), but, are used to contradict what precedes, regularly after negatives ; at, yet, introduces with emphasis a new point, especially in argument (at enim almost always) alluding to a supposed statement on the other side ; autem (however) is used in the same way, especially in transitions, but with less force. Atqui sometimes introduces an objection, sometimes a fresh step in the reasoning. Quod si, but if, is used to continue a statement. Ast is old or poetic.*

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<sup>1</sup> A concessive is often followed by an adversative : as *tamenetsi . . tamen nihilominus, though . . . yet none the less.*

c. **Aut**, or, excludes the alternative; **vel** (-ve) gives a choice; **sive** (seu) is properly used in disjunctive conditions, but is also used with single words, — especially two names for the same thing. But of **aut** and **vel** the use is not always clearly distinguished. **Vel** (even) is used to express a climax; **vel minimus**, the very least.

d. **Nam** (namque), for, introduces a sufficient reason; **enim**, an explanatory circumstance; **etenim** (for, you see; for, you know), something self-evident, or needing no proof (negatively, **nec** or **neque enim**).

e. **Ergo**, therefore, is used of things proved logically; **itaque**, in proofs from the nature of things; **igitur**, then (a weak **ergo**), in passing from one stage of the argument to another, often merely to resume; **idcirco**, for this reason, to call attention to a special point, followed regularly by a clause with **quod**, **quia**, **si**, or **ut**.

f. **Quia**, because, regularly introduces a fact; **quod**, either a fact or a statement or allegation; **quoniam** (quom jam), since, has reference to motives.

g. **Quom** (cum), when, is always a relative conjunction, often a correlative with **tum**; **quando** is also used as interrogative or indefinite (**quando?** when? **si quando**, if ever).

h. Conjunctions, especially those of relative origin, frequently have a correlative in the preceding clause, to which they correspond. So too the same conjunction is often repeated in two coördinate clauses. Examples are the following:—

**Et** . . . **et** means simply both . . . and; **cum** (less frequently **tum**) . . . **tum** emphasizes the second member, with the meaning not only . . . but also; while . . . so too. Other forms are **modo** . . . **modo**, **nunc** . . . **nunc**, **jam** . . . **jam**, **simul** . . . **simul**, **quā** . . . **quā**.

i. The concessives (**etsi**, **quamvis**, etc.) may introduce either a fact or a supposition; and are regularly followed by the correlative **tamen**, yet, nevertheless. Of these **ut** often has the meaning suppose, even if; **cum**, whereas, while on the other hand. **Quamquam** (rarely **etsi** or **tametsi**), and yet, but, however, may introduce an independent statement to limit and correct the preceding, often by a sudden transition: as, **quamquam quid loquor?** but what am I saying?

k. **Autem**, **enim**, **vero**, always follow one or more words in their clause; the same is generally true of **igitur**, and often of **tamen**.

[For the Syntax of these Particles, see 208].

Chapter VIII.—*Formation of Words.*1. — *Roots and Stems.*<sup>1</sup>

**157.** The Root is the simplest (most primitive) form in which the general meaning of a word can be traced. STEMS are formed from roots, and are divided into two main groups: viz., Noun-stems (including adjectives) and Verb-stems.<sup>2</sup>

NOTE. — Some roots show no trace of any meaning except one of position or direction, and are called Pronominal Roots.

**158.** Roots may be used as Stems:—

- a.* Without change: as, *dūc-is, dux; nēc-is, nex.*
- b.* With vowel-increase: as, *lūc-is, lūx; pāc-is, pāx.*
- c.* With reduplication: as, *fur-fur, mar-mor, mur-mur.*
- d.* Compounded: as, *jū-dic-is, judex (jus, dico); con-jug-is, conjux (con-jungo).*

**159.** Stems are more commonly formed by means of Suffixes consisting of Pronominal Roots:<sup>3</sup>

- a.* Primary: added to the Root.<sup>4</sup>
- b.* Secondary: added to a Stem, either with or without the above changes.

2. — *Primary Suffixes.*

**160.** Primary Suffixes (*i. e.* those added directly to the Root) were, in their original form, the following:—

- a.* The Vowels *a, i, u.*
- b.* The Syllables *ta, ti, tu; na, ni, nu*  
*ma, va, ra, ya, ka*  
*an, as, ant; man, tar, tra*

<sup>1</sup> See 21, 22, p. 9.

<sup>2</sup> Both Roots and Stems were at the earlier stages of the Indo-European language significant, and capable of being used without inflection. Thus neither roots nor stems are mere abstractions, though they have not been used as words in any existing language of the family. Many stems could be used indiscriminately to make verbs or nouns (See Introductory Note, p. 117).

Examples of roots are *ES, be; I, go; STA, stand; CAP, take; DUC, lead; FAC, make; FER, bear; RAP, seize; SED, sit; TEN, stretch* (see also pp. 84, 85); *DA (ΔΟ), give; DHA (ΘΕ), put.* <sup>3</sup> A few suffixes are verbal or doubtful.

<sup>4</sup> The Root is in this case often lengthened by vowel-increase also.



The Vowel suffixes **a, i, u**, are sometimes regarded as if merely added to the root to fit it for inflection; but they are, in fact, true pronominal Roots, and must be regarded as formative suffixes.

The first, **a**, is found in nouns and adjectives of **a-** and **o-**stems, as *sonus, lūdus, vagus, scriba, toga* (root TEG);<sup>1</sup> — **i** is less common, and in Latin has frequently been changed, as in *rūpes*, or lost as in *scobis* (scobis, root SCAB); — **u** is disguised in most adjectives by an additional **i**, as in *sud-vis*,<sup>2</sup> *ten-uis* (root TEN in *tendo*), and remains alone only in nouns of the fourth declension, as *acus* (root AX, sharp, in *acer, acies, acūs*), *pecu* (root PAC, bind, in *pac-iscor*).

The signification of the other primary suffixes is as follows: —

- a. **ta** (in the form **to-**) makes the regular perfect participle, as *tectus, tectum*; sometimes active, as in *potus, pransus*; and is found in a few not recognized as participles, as *putus*,<sup>3</sup> *altus* (*alo*).
- β. **ti** forms abstracts, rarely nouns of agency, as *messis, vestis, pars, mens* (where the **i** is lost).
- γ. **tu** forms abstracts (including supines), sometimes becoming concretes, as *actus, luctus*.
- δ. **na**, forming perfect participles in other languages, in Latin makes adjectives of like meaning, which often become nouns, as *magnus* (= *mactus*, root MAG), *plenus, regnum* (compare *caten*).
- e. **ni**, forms nouns of agency and adjectives, as *ignis, segnis*.
- ζ. **nu** is rare, as in *manus, sinus*.
- η. **ma** has various meanings, as in *animus, almus, firmus, forma*.
- θ. **va** (commonly **uo-**) has active or passive meaning, as in *equus, aruum, conspicuus, exiguus, vacuus* (*vacuus*).
- κ. **ra** (or **la**, a passive participle termination in other languages) is usually passive, as in *ager, integer, plerī-que* (= *plēnus* = *plētus*), *sella* (for *sed-la*, cf. *ἔδρα*).
- λ. **ya** (forming gerundives in other languages) makes adjectives and abstracts, including many of the first and fifth declensions, as *eximius, audācia, Flōrentia, pernicies*.
- μ. **ka**, sometimes primary, as in *pauci* (cf. *παῦρος*), *locus*.<sup>4</sup> In many cases the vowel of this termination is lost, leaving a consonant-stem: as, *apex, cortex*, and probably *loquax*.
- ν. **an** (**in, on-**), in nouns of agency and abstracts: as, *aspergo, compāgo* (*īnis*), *gero* (*ōnis*).
- ξ. **man** (**men**: also used as a conscious derivative) expresses MEANS, often passing into the action itself: as, *agmen, flūmen*.

<sup>1</sup> Observe that it is the *stem*, not the *nominative*, that is formed by the suffix, although the nominative is here given for convenience of reference.

<sup>2</sup> For *sud-vis*, cf. *ῥῆ-ῖς*.

<sup>3</sup> Root PU, whence *pūrus*.

<sup>4</sup> For *stlocus*, cf. Sk. *sthara, sthala*, Ger. *Stelle*, Eng. *stall*.

- e. **tar**, forming nouns of AGENCY : as, *pater* (i.e. protector), *frāter* (supporter), *ōrditor*.  
 ƣ. **tra**, forming nouns of MEANS : as, *claustrum*, *mulctrum*.  
 p. **as** (sometimes phonetically changed into **er**, **or**), forming names of actions : as, *genus*, *furor*.  
 σ. **ant**, forming active PARTICIPLES : as, *legens*, with some adjectives from roots unknown : as, *frequens*, *recens*.

The above, with some suffixes given below, belong to the original language, and most of them were not felt as living formations in the historical period. But developed forms of these, with a few other primary suffixes, were used consciously, generally as secondary suffixes added to noun or verb-stems.

### 3. — Significant Endings.

**161.** Derivative Nominal (noun and adjective) forms include, — 1. Nouns of Agency ; 2. Names of Actions ; 3. Adjectives (active or passive).<sup>1</sup>

**162.** Nouns of Agency include active adjectives and appellatives. Their significant endings are —

- a. **tor**<sup>2</sup> (euphonicallly **sor**), M. ; **trix**, F. : as,  
*cano*, *sing* : cantor, *singer* ; *cantrix*, *songstress*.  
**vinco** (VIC), *conquer* : victor, *victrix*, *conqueror* (*victorious*).  
*tondeo*, *shear* : tonsor, *tonstrix*, *hair-cutter*.  
**peto**, *seek* : petitor, *candidate*.

This termination may be added by analogy to noun-stems : as,

**via**, *way* ; *viātor*, *traveller*.

- b. **ēs** (Itis), C., descriptive nouns : as,  
**mīles**, *soldier* ; **hospes**, *guest*.

- c. **o** (ōnis), M., connected with specific acts or trades : as,  
**caupo**, *a huckster* ; **combibo**, *pot-companion*.

<sup>1</sup> The derivative endings in conscious use, by which these are denoted, are given in the Nominative form. These suffixes are sometimes obscure, from the fact that after a pattern has been given in one form of stem, that form is taken as a type, and others are made to conform to it. Thus adjectives in *-ārius* are properly formed from A or O stems ; but after *ārius* is established as a termination, it may be added to almost any noun : as, *honorārius*. So in English we form *bearable*, *thinkable*, with a suffix which is properly *-ble*, as in *legible*, *tolerable*.

<sup>2</sup> This termination is added to the verb stem or root, and has the same euphonic change as the supine ending **tum** or **sum** : compare *amā-tum*, *amā-tor* ; *can-tum*, *can-tor* ; *ton-sum*, *ton-sor*. A similar change is made in the terminations *tio*, *tūra*, *tūs* (see below, 163. b).

**163.** Names of Actions (passing into abstracts, instruments, or results) are derived from roots or verb-stems. Their significant endings are —

a. *or, m., ēs, is, F. ; us, ur, N.* from roots : *as,*

*timeo, fear ; timor, dread ; sedeo, sit : sedēs, seat.*

*decet, it is becoming : decus, grace, beauty.*

b. *to, tio, tūra, tus (sio, sūra, sus),* making VERBAL ABSTRACTS, those in *tūs* being more concrete : *as,*

*lego, gather, enroll ; legio, legion.*

*insero (SA), implant ; insitio, grafting.*

*pingo (PIG), paint ; pictūra, picture.*

*sentio, feel ; sensus, perception.*

c. *men, mentum, mōnium, N., mōnia, F.,*<sup>1</sup> denoting ACT, MEANS, RESULT : *as,*

*fruo, enjoy ; frumentum, grain.*

*testor, to witness ; testimōnium, testimony.*

*queror, complain ; querimōnia, complaint.*

d. *bulum, culum, brum, crum, trum, N.,* from verb-stems (rarely from nouns) : denoting MEANS OR INSTRUMENT : *as,*

*candēla, candle ; candēlabrum, candlestick.*

*tus (tūris), incense ; tūribulum, a censer.*

*veho, carry ; vehiculum, cart, vehicle.*

*simulo, feign, pretend ; simulācrum, image.*

*claudo, to shut ; claustrum, a bolt.*

e. *ia, tia, tās, tūs, tūdo (do, go), F.,* ABSTRACTS (chiefly) from adjective stems, rarely becoming concrete : *as,*

*dūrus, hard ; dūritia (ies), sternness.*

*audax, bold ; audācia, daring.*

*bonus, good ; bonitas, kindness, fertility.*

*senex, aged (an old man) ; senectus, old age.*

*sōlus, alone ; sōlitūdo, solitude.*

*libet (lubet), it pleases ; libido, wantonness, self-will.*

Stems ending in *o, a,* regularly change those vowels to *i*.<sup>2</sup> Many consonant-stems insert *i* after the analogy of *i*-stems, as *loquācitas*.

f. *ium (ya* primary suffix) forms neuter abstracts, — usually from Nouns, giving the sense of *offices* or *groups* : *as,*

*hospes, a guest ; hospitium, hospitality.*

*servus, a slave ; servitium, the slave-class, slavery.*

*collēga, a colleague ; collēgium, a college (as of augurs).*

<sup>1</sup> Primary Suffixes *man, man-ta, man-ya*.

<sup>2</sup> It is possible that this *i* may have been originally a stem-vowel (compare *ka* in note on "Primary Suffixes)."

164. Adjective forms, often passing into Nouns, are Nominal (from nouns or adjectives), or Verbal (from verb-stems or roots). Their significant endings are—

NOMINAL.

- a. *ŭlus* (after a vowel -*ŭlus*; after *s, n, r*, -*culus*), *ellus, illus*, —  
DIMINUTIVES with endings for gender: as,

*rivus, a brook*; *rivulus, a streamlet*.

*gladius, a sword*; *gladiolus, a small sword*.

*homo, a man*: *homunculus (homuncio), a dwarf*.

*mūnus, a gift*; *mūnuscūlum, a little gift*.

*puer, a boy*; *puella (puerula), a girl*.

*cōdex, a block*; *cōdicilli, writing-tablets*.

- b. *ādes* (as, F.), *īdes, īdes* (is, ēis, F.), *ēus*, PATRONYMICS, denoting Parentage, &c.: as,

*Tyndareus*: *Tyndarides, Castor or Pollux*; *Tyndaris, Helen*.

*Oileus*: *Ajax Ōilēus, son of Oileus*.

*Atlas*: *Atlantiadēs, Mercury*; *Atlantiadēs* (Greek), *the Pleiads*.

- c. *ānus, ēnus, īnus*; *īs, as, ensis*; *ius, acus, icus, ēus, ēius, icius*, *iacus*, GENTILE ADJECTIVES (derived from the names of places or peoples); with others denoting BELONGING TO or COMING FROM: as,

*Rōma*: *Rōmānus, Roman*; *Sulla*: *Sullāni, Sylla's veterans*.

*Cyzicus*: *Cyzicēni, people of Cyzicus*; *Liguria*, *Ligurinus*.

*Arpinum*: *Arpīnas, a native of Arpinum* (as *Marius, Cicero*).

*Sicilia*: *Siciliensis*; *Ephesus*: *Ephesius*; *Ilium*: *Iliacus*.

*Epicūrus*: *Epicurēus (a disciple)*; *Plato*: *Platōnicus*.

*libertus, one's freedman*; *libertinus, of the class of freedmen*.

- d. *ālis, āris, ēlis, īlis, ūlis, īnus, nus*, denote various modes of relation or possession: as,

*populus, a people*; *populāris, fellow-countryman*.

*mors, death*; *mortālis, mortal*.

*patruus, uncle*; *patruēlis, cousin*.

*hostis, an enemy*; *hostilis, hostile*.

*currus, chariot*; *sella curūlis, curule chair*.

*vitulus, a calf*; *vitulina [caro], veal*.

*ver, spring*; *vernus, vernal*; *dies, day*; *diurnus, daily*.

*ovis, a sheep*; *ovile, sheepfold*; *bos, ox*; *bovine, stall*.

- e. *ter* (*tris*), *timus, ternus*, denote relations of place, time, &c.: as,

*campus, a plain*; *campester, level*.

*fines, boundaries*; *finitimus, neighboring*.

*diu, long* (in time); *diūturnus, lasting*.

*heri* (old *hesi*), *yesterday*; *hesternus, of yesterday*.

- f.* **ātus, itus, ūtus** (participial forms from imaginary verb-stems, like the English *horned*), PROVIDED WITH : as,

**galea**, a *helmet*; **galeātus**, *helmed*.

**auris**, an *ear*; **auritus**, *long-eared* (a hare).

**barba**, a *beard*; **barbātus**, *bearded* (old-fashioned).

**versus**, a *turning*; **versūtus**, *crafty, adroit*.

- g.* **eus, ius, inus, āceus, ĭcius** (participial), MATERIAL OR RELATION : as,

**aurum**, *gold*; **aureus**, *golden*.

**rex**, a *king*; **rēgius**, *royal*.

**bombyx**, *silk*; **bombycinus**, *silken*.

**patres**, the *Fathers* (Senators); **patricius**, *patrician*.

**collātus**, *brought together*; **collāticius**, *got by contribution*.

- h.* **ārius, ōrius, ius, ious**, BELONGING TO (M., of *trades*, &c. ; N., often of *place*) : as,

**argentum**, *silver*; **argentārius**, *broker, silversmith*.

**ordo**, *rank, series*; **ordinārius**, *regular*.

**tepidus**, *lukewarm*; **tepidārium**, *place for a warm bath*.

**uxor**, *wife*; **uxōrius**, *uxorious*.

**bellum**, *war*; **bellicus**, *warlike*; **bellicum**, *battle-signal*.

- i.* **ētum**, PLACE : as,

**quercus**, *oak-tree*; **quercētum**, *an oak-grove*.

- k.* **ōsus, olens, olentus**, FULL OF, PRONE TO : as,

**fluctus**, *wave*; **fluctuōsus**, *billowy*.

**periculum**, *peril*; **periculōsus**, *full of danger*.

**vis**, *force*; **violens**, *violentus*, *violent*.

**vinum**, *wine*; **vinolentus**, **vinōsus**, *given to drink*.

**ira**, *anger*; **irācundus**, *passionate, wrathful*.

#### VERBAL.

- l.* **ax, idus, ulus, vus (uus, ivus)**, adjectives, expressing the action as QUALITY OR TENDENCY, — **ax**, often faulty or aggressive; **ivus**, oftener passive : as,

**pugno**, *to fight*; **pugnax**, *pugnacious*.

**audeo**, *to dare*; **audax**, *bold*.

**cupio**, *to desire*; **cupidus**, *eager*.

**bibo**, *to drink*; **bibulus**, *thirsty* (as dry earth, &c.).

**prōtero**, *to trample*; **prōtervus**, *violent, wanton*.

**noceo**, *do harm*; **nocuus**, *hurtful, injurious*.

**capio**, *take*; **captivus**, *captive*; M., a *prisoner of war*.

- m.* **ilis, bilis, ius**, PASSIVE QUALITIES (rarely active) : as,

**frango** (FRAG), *to break*; **fragilis**, *frail*.

**nosco** (GNO), *to know*; **nōbilis**, *well known, famous*.

**eximo**, *to take out, select*; **eximius**, *choice, rare*.

**m. minus, minus**, properly PARTICIPLES,<sup>1</sup> but no longer used as such: as,

**FE** (obsolete root), *produce*; *fēmina*, *woman*.  
**alo**, *to nourish*; *alumnus*, *a foster-child*.

**o. ndus** (*endus, undus*, the Gerund ending) forms a few active or reflexive adjectives: as,

**sequor**, *to follow*; *secundus*, *second, favorable* (*secundo flumine, down stream*).

**roto**, *to whirl* (from *rota, wheel*); *rotundus*, *round* (cf. *volvendis mensibus, revolving months*).

**p. bundus, cundus**, PARTICIPIAL, but denoting *continuance* of the act or quality: as,

**vito**, *to shun*; *vitābundus*, (*Sall.*), *dodging about*.  
**vagor**, *to roam*; *vagābundus*, *vagrant, vagabond*.  
**morior**, *to die*; *moribundus*, *in the agony of death*.

#### 4. — Derivation of Verbs.

**165.** Most verbs of the Third Conjugation, the Irregular verbs, and a few vowel-stems,<sup>2</sup> are primitive.<sup>3</sup> Most others are either *causative* or *denominative* (formed from nouns or adjectives).

**166.** The following are the regular Conjugational forms:—

**a.** Verbs of the First conjugation may be formed from a great number of nouns or adjectives of the first or second declension, by changing the stem-vowel into the characteristic *ā*: as,

**stimulus**, *a goad*; *stimulāre*, *incite*.  
**aequus**, *just*; *aequāre*, *to make equal*.  
**saltum** (*salio*), *leap*; *saltāre* (*freq.*), *to dance*.

A few by a false analogy add the vowel to the noun-stem: as,

**vigil**, *watchful*; *vigil-ā-re*, *to keep guard*.  
**exsul**, *an exile*; *exsul-ā-re*, *to be in banishment*.  
**aestu**, *tide, seething*; *aestu-ā-re*, *to surge, boil*.

<sup>1</sup> Compare Greek *-μενος*.

<sup>2</sup> As *dā-re, stā-re, flē-re, nā-re, nē-re, rē-ri*.

<sup>3</sup> The consciousness of Roots was lost in Latin, so that of verbs not primitive in forming the parts only Stems are dealt with. Thus *moneo* (*Skr. mān-ayā-mi*), *monui* (not *menui*), from root *MEN*, as in *mens*; *caedo, cecidi* (not *cecidi*), from root *CAD* (as in *cado*). For modifications of the root in verb-stems, see pp. 84, 85. The derivative suffix in the regular conjugations is original *ya* added either to the root, the Present stem in *a*, or a Noun-stem.

b. A few verbs of the Second conjugation are formed in like manner from noun-stems; but most are formed from the Root by adding the characteristic *ē*, and are intransitive or neuter in their meaning: as, *algēre*, to be cold; *sedēre*, to sit.

c. Some verbs in *uo* (Third conjugation) are primitive, formed from the Root by adding the stem-vowel *ū*, originally *ā*: as, *flu-e-re*, *ru-e-re*. Others add this vowel to a noun-stem; this is regular with *u* stems: as,

*statu-s*, condition; *statu-e-re*, to establish, resolve.

d. Most verbs of the Fourth conjugation add the characteristic *i* to the Root: as, *sop-i-re*, to put to sleep; *sal-i-re*, to leap. Some are formed from *i*-stems (nouns): as,

*fīni-s*, end, limit; *fīnī-re*, to bound.

*siti-s*, thirst; *siti-re*, to be thirsty.

#### 5. — Derivative Verbs.

167. The following classes of regular derivatives have meanings corresponding to their form:—

a. INCEPTIVES OR INCHOATIVES end in *-sco*, and denote the beginning of an action: as, *calesco*, I grow warm (*caleo*); *vesperascit*, it is getting late (*vesper*). They are of the third conjugation, and have only the present stem, though often completed by forms of simple verbs: as, *calesco*, *calui* (from *caleo*, to be hot).<sup>1</sup>

b. INTENSIVES OR ITERATIVES<sup>2</sup> end in *-to* or *-ito* (rarely *-so*), and denote a forcible or repeated action: as, *jacto*, to hurl (*jacio*); *dictito*, to keep on saying (*dicto*); *quasso*, to shatter (*quatio*). They are of the first conjugation, and are properly Denominative, derived from the participle in *-tus*.

c. Another form of Intensives—sometimes called Meditatives, or verbs of practice—ends in *-esso* (rarely *-isso*), denoting a certain energy or eagerness of action: as, *capesso*, to lay hold on; *facesso*, to do (with energy); *petisso*, to seek (eagerly). They are of the 3d conjugation, usually having the perfect and supine of the 4th: as,

*lacesso*, *laccessere*, *laccessivi*, *laccessitum*, to provoke.

d. DIMINUTIVES (derived from real or supposed diminutive nouns) end in *-illo*, and denote a feeble or petty action: as, *cantillāre*, to chirp or warble (*canto*, sing).

<sup>1</sup> In the narrative tenses, the inceptive and complete action naturally become confounded.

<sup>2</sup> Iteratives (or Frequentatives), though distinct in meaning from Intensives, are not always distinguished from them in form.

*e.* DESIDERATIVES end in *ŭrio*, expressing *longing* or *wish*, and are of the fourth conjugation. Only three are in common use: viz., *empturio* (*emo, buy*), *esurio* (*ēdo, eat*), *parturio* (*pario, bring forth*). Others occur for comic effect in the dramatists. They are derived from some noun of agency in *tor* or *sor* (as *empturio*, from *emptor*). *Viso* is a regular inherited desiderative of an earlier formation.

#### 6. — Compound Words.

168. New stems are formed by composition as follows: <sup>1</sup> —

- a.* The second part is simply added to the first: as,  
*su-ove-aurilla* (*sus, ovis, taurus*), *the sacrifice of a hog, sheep, bull.*  
*septen-decim* (*septem, decem*), *seventeen.*

- b.* The first modifies the second as an adjective or adverb: as,  
*lātifundium* (*lātus, fundus*), *a large landed estate.*  
*paeninsula* (*paene, insula*), *a peninsula.* [*kindly.*]  
*benevolus* (*bene, volus, from root of volo*), *well-wishing,*

- c.* The first part has the force of a case, and the second a verbal force: as,

*agricola* (*ager, colo*), *a farmer.*  
*armiger* (*arma, gero*), *armor-bearer.*  
*cornicen* (*cornu, cano*), *horn-blower.*  
*carnifex* (*caro, facio*), *executioner.*

- d.* Compounds of either of the above kinds, in which the last word is a noun, acquire the signification of adjectives, meaning *possessed* of the property denoted: as,

*ālipes* (*āla, pes*), *wing-footed.*  
*magnanimus* (*magnus, animus*), *great-souled.*  
*concoris* (*cum, cor*), *harmonious.*  
*anceps* (*amb-, caput*), *doubtful* (having a head at both ends).

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<sup>1</sup> In these compounds only the second part receives inflection. This is most commonly the proper inflection of the last stem; but, as this kind of composition is in fact older than inflection, the compounded stem sometimes has an inflection of its own (as, *cornicen, -cinis*; *lucifer, -feri*; *judex, -dixis*), from stems not occurring in Latin. Especially do adjectives in Latin take the form of *i*-stems: as, *animus, exanimis*; *norma, abnormis* (See Note, p. 37). The stems regularly have their uninflected form. But *o*- and *a*-stems weaken the vowels to *i* as in *alipes*; and *i* is so common a termination of compounded stems, that it is often added to stems which do not properly have it: as, *foedi-fragus* (for *foederi-fragus*: *foedus, frango*).



**169.** In many compounds, words already inflected have grown together more closely. Examples are —

*a.* Compounds of **facio, facto**, with an actual or formerly existing verbal stem in **e**. These are CAUSATIVE in force: as, **consuefacio** (*consuesco*), *to habituate*; **calefacio, calefacto**, *to heat*.

*b.* An adverb or noun combined with a verb: as, **benedico** (*bene, dico*), *to bless*; **satago** (*satis, ago*), *to be busy enough*.

*c.* Many apparent stem-compounds: as, **fidejubeo** (*fidei, jubeo*), *to give surety*; **mansuetus** (*manui, suetus*), *tame*.

**170.** Many compounds are formed by prefixing a Particle to some other part of speech: viz.,

*a.* Prepositions are prefixed to Verbs or Adjectives, retaining their original adverbial sense: <sup>1</sup> as,

**ā, ab**, AWAY: **au-ferre** (*ab-fero*), *to take away*.

**ad**, TO, TOWARDS: **af-ferre** (*ad-fero*), *to bring*.

**ante**, BEFORE: **ante-ferre**, *to prefer*; **ante-cellere**, *to excel*.

**circum**, AROUND: **circum-mūnire**, *to fortify completely*.

**com, con** (*cum*), TOGETHER OR FORCIBLY: **con-ferre**, *to bring together*; **col-locāre**, *to set firm*.

**dē**, DOWN, UTTERLY: **dē-spicio**, *despise*; **dēstruo**, *destroy*.

**ē, ex**, OUT: **ef-ferre** (*ec-fero*), *to carry forth, uplift*.

**in** (with verbs), IN, ON, AGAINST: **in-ferre**, *to bear against*.

**inter**, BETWEEN, TO PIECES: **inter-rumpere**, *to interrupt*.

**ob**, TOWARDS, TO MEET: **of-ferre**, *to offer*; **ob-venire**, *to meet*.

**sub**, UNDER, in LOW DEGREE: **sub-struere**, *to build beneath*.

**super**, UPON, OVER AND ABOVE: **super-fluere**, *to overflow*; **superstes**, *a survivor*.

*b.* Verbs are also compounded with the following inseparable Particles, which do not appear as prepositions in Latin:

**amb** (*am, an*), AROUND: **ambīre**, *to go about* (cf. ἀμφί).

**dis, di**, ASUNDER, APART: **discēdere**, *to depart* (cf. duo).

**por**, FORWARD: **portendere**, *to hold forth, predict* (cf. porro).

**red, re**, BACK: **redīre**, *to return*.

**sēd, sē**, APART: **sēcerno**, *to separate* (cf. sēd, but).

*c.* An adjective is sometimes modified by an adverb prefixed. Of these, **per** (less commonly **prae**), **very**, **sub**, **somewhat**, **in**, **not**, are regular, and may be prefixed to almost any adjective: as,

**per-magnus**, *very large*; **prae-longus**, *very long*.

**sub-rusticus**, *rather countrified*; **in-finitus**, *boundless*.

<sup>1</sup> They sometimes, however, have the force of prepositions, especially *ad*, *in*, *circum*, *trans*, and govern the case of a noun.

## PART SECOND.

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### USE OF WORDS (SYNTAX).

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#### INTRODUCTORY NOTE.

THE study of formal grammar arose at a late period in the history of language, and deals with language as fully developed. The terms of Syntax correspond accordingly to the logical habits of thought that have grown up at such a period, and have therefore a logical as well as a simply grammatical meaning. But Syntax as thus developed is not essential to language as such. A form of words — like *O puerum pulcrum!* — may express a thought, and in some languages might even be a sentence; while it does not logically declare any thing, and does not, strictly speaking, make what we call a sentence at all.

At a very early period of spoken language, there is no doubt that Roots were significant in themselves, and constituted the whole of the language, — just as to an infant the name of some familiar object will stand for all it can say about it. At a somewhat later stage, two simple roots put side by side<sup>1</sup> make a rudimentary form of proposition: as a child might say *fire bright; horse run*. With this begins the first form of logical distinction, that of Subject and Predicate; but as yet there is no distinction between noun and verb either in form or function. Roots are presently specialized, or modified in meaning, by addition of other roots either pronominal or verbal, and Stems are formed; but the same stem could still be either noun-stem or verb-stem. Still later — by combination chiefly of different pronominal elements with verb-stems and with noun-stems — Inflections are developed to express *person, tense, case*, and other grammatical relations,<sup>2</sup> and we have true parts of speech.

Not until language reached this last stage was there any limit to the association of words, or any rule prescribing the manner in which they should be combined. But gradually, by custom, particular forms came

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<sup>1</sup> Called *parataxis*, in contrast with *Syntaxis*, “combination.”

<sup>2</sup> Sometimes called *accidents*: hence the “accidence” of the language. Compare pp. 14, N. 1; 63, N. 2; 65, N. 1.

to be limited to special uses, or were produced to serve those uses; and rules were established for combining words in what we now call Sentences.<sup>1</sup> These rules are in part general laws or forms of thought (Logic), resulting from our habits of mind (General Grammar); and in part are what may be called By-Laws, established by custom in a given language (Particular Grammar), and making what is called the Syntax of that language.<sup>2</sup>

In the fully developed methods of expression to which we are almost exclusively accustomed, the unit of expression is the SENTENCE; that is, the completed statement, with its distinct Subject and Predicate. These, starting with the simple noun and verb, undergo successive modifications and combinations corresponding with our habitual forms of thought, and constitute the subject-matter of Syntax as shown in the annexed Outline.

I. A SENTENCE may be either Simple or Compound: viz.,

1. SIMPLE: containing a single statement (Subject and Predicate).
2. COMPOUND: { *a.* Containing two or more Co-ordinate Clauses.  
*b.* Modified by Subordinate Clauses (*complex*).

II. The Essential Parts of the Sentence are —

1. The SUBJECT: consist- { *a.* Noun or its equivalent.  
ing of { *b.* Pronoun contained in verb-ending.
2. The PREDICATE: con- { *a.* Neuter (intransitive) Verb.  
sisting of { *b.* Copula with Complement.  
                  { *c.* Verb with Object.

III. The Subject and Predicate may be MODIFIED as follows: —

1. The NOUN (*Subject or*  
*Object*) by { *a.* Noun in Apposition.  
                  { *b.* Adjective or Participle.  
                  { *c.* Noun in Oblique Case.  
                  { *d.* Preposition with its case.  
                  { *e.* Relative Clause.
2. The VERB (*predicate*) by { *a.* Adverb or Adverbial Phrase.  
                                  { *b.* Predicate Adjective.  
                                  { *c.* Subordinate Clause.

IV. Hence: { *a.* Rules of AGREEMENT (*the Four Concorde*s).  
                  { *b.* Rules of GOVERNMENT (*Construction of Cases*).

<sup>1</sup> The meaning of Sentence is "Thought" (*sententia* from *sentire*). The grammatical form of the sentence is the form in which the thought is expressed.

<sup>2</sup> In most languages there still remain traces of the *unorganised* forms of expression; as for example the nominative or accusative in Exclamations, the use of Interjections generally, and the omission of the Copula. These are sometimes wrongly regarded as cases of Ellipsis.

## Chapter I. — *The Sentence.*

### Definitions.

**171.** A SENTENCE is a form of words which contains either a Statement, a Question, an Exclamation, or a Command.

*a.* A sentence in the form of a Statement is called a DECLARATIVE SENTENCE: as, *equus currit, the horse runs.*

*b.* A sentence in the form of a Question is called an INTERROGATIVE SENTENCE: as, *equusne currit? does the horse run?*

*c.* A sentence in the form of an Exclamation is called an EXCLAMATORY SENTENCE: as, *quam celeriter currit equus! how fast the horse runs!*

*d.* A sentence in the form of a Command is called an IMPERATIVE SENTENCE: as, *currat equus, let the horse run.*

### Subject and Predicate.

**172.** The SUBJECT of a sentence is the person or thing spoken of; the PREDICATE is that which is stated of the Subject.

**173.** Every complete sentence must contain a Subject and a Verb.<sup>1</sup> The Subject (when declined) is in the NOMINATIVE CASE: as,

*equus currit, the horse runs.*

*regina sedet, the queen sits.*

NOTE. — In certain constructions the verb is in the Infinitive mood, and its subject is put in the Accusative.

**174.** The Subject of a sentence is usually a Noun, or some word or phrase used for a noun. But in Latin it may be contained<sup>2</sup> in the termination<sup>3</sup> of the verb itself: as,

*sedēmus, we sit; curritis, you run.*

<sup>1</sup> The meaning of VERB (*verbum*) is "word," as being the only part of speech that strictly declares (predicates) any thing.

<sup>2</sup> This is true, however, in general, only when the verb is of the first or second person (cf. 206). With the third person on account of the variety of possible subjects a definite one must be expressed, unless implied in what goes before or follows.

<sup>3</sup> See p. 63, n. 2.

175. The Verb may contain an entire statement in itself, and require no other word to complete the sense (a Neuter or Intransitive verb): as,

*aro, I plough (am ploughing).*

*sol lucet, the sun shines.*

*sunt viri fortes, there are brave men.*

Thus, as in the first example, a sentence in Latin may consist of a verb alone. The verb *to be*, used as in the last example to make a complete statement, is called the SUBSTANTIVE VERB.

176. A Neuter verb is often followed by a noun or an adjective to complete the statement. This is called the COMPLEMENT: as,

*Quintus sedet iudex, Quintus sits [as] judge.*

*Caesar victor incedit, Caesar advances victorious.*

*hi viri sunt fortes, these men are brave.*

a. The verb *to be*, when thus followed by an attribute, is called the COPULA (i.e. *link*). In like manner, verbs signifying *to become*, *to be made*, *to be named*, *to appear*, and the like, which serve to connect a Subject with a Predicate, are called COPULATIVE (i.e. *coupling* or *connecting*) VERBS.

b. The case of the Predicate after *esse* and similar verbs is the same with that of the Subject: as,

*Roma est patria nostra, Rome is our native place.*

*stellae lucidae erant, the stars were bright.*

*puerum decet esse modestum, it becomes a boy to be modest.*

177. The action of many verbs (called *transitive*) passes over upon an OBJECT. This Object in Latin is in the ACCUSATIVE CASE: as,

*pater vocat filium, the father calls (his) son.*

*videmus lunam et stellas, we see the moon and stars.*

NOTE. — The distinction between transitive and intransitive is not fixed, but most transitive verbs can be used without an object, and many intransitive verbs with one (see 237. b).

a. The direct Object of a transitive verb becomes its Subject when in the Passive voice, and is put in the NOMINATIVE CASE: as,

*filius a patre vocatur, the son is called by [his] father.*

*luna et stellae videntur, the moon and stars appear (are seen).*

*b.* With certain verbs, the genitive, dative, or ablative may be used where the corresponding English verbs from a difference in meaning require the objective. Thus —

1. *hominem video*, I see the man (ACCUSATIVE).
2. *homini servo*, I serve the man (DATIVE).
3. *hominis misereor*, I pity the man (GENITIVE).
4. *homine amico utor*, I treat the man as a friend (ABLATIVE).

*c.* Many verbs transitive in Latin are translated in English by a verb requiring a preposition (intransitive) : as,

*petit aprum*, he aims at the boar.

NOTE. — One or more words, essential to the grammatical completeness of a sentence, but clear enough to the mind of a hearer, are often omitted: this is called ELLIPSIS, and the sentence is called an ELLIPTICAL SENTENCE.

#### Modification.

178. A Subject or a Predicate of any kind may be modified by single words, or by a Phrase or a Clause. The modifying word or group of words may itself be modified in the same way.

*a.* A single modifying word is either an Adjective, an Adverb, an Appositive, or the oblique case of a Noun. Thus in the sentence *a brave man suffers patiently*, the adjective *brave* modifies the subject *man*, and the adverb *patiently* modifies the predicate *suffers*.

*b.* The modifying word is in some cases said to LIMIT the word to which it belongs. Thus in the sentence *pueri patrem video*, I see the boy's father, the genitive *pueri* limits *patrem* (i.e. by excluding any other father).

179. A PHRASE is a group of words, without subject or predicate of its own, which may be used as an Adjective or Adverb.

Thus in the sentence *he was a man of great strength*, the words *of great strength* are used for the adjective *strong* (or *very strong*), and are called an ADJECTIVE PHRASE. In the sentence *he came with great speed*, the words *with great speed* are used for the adverb *quickly* (or *very quickly*), and are called an ADVERBIAL PHRASE.

**180.** A Sentence containing a single statement is called a **SIMPLE SENTENCE**. If it contains more than one statement, it is called a **COMPOUND SENTENCE**, and each single statement in it is called a **CLAUSE**.

*a.* If one statement is simply added to another, the clauses are said to be **CO-ORDINATE**. The two are usually connected by some word called a **Co-ordinate Conjunction** (see p. 104).

*b.* If one statement is subordinate to another, as modifying it in some way, the clause is said to be **SUBORDINATE**, and the sentence is sometimes called **COMPLEX**. This subordination is indicated by some connecting word, either a **Relative** or **Subordinate Conjunction**.

*c.* Any clause introduced by a **Relative** is called a **RELATIVE CLAUSE**; if by an **Adverb of Time**, a **TEMPORAL CLAUSE**.

*d.* A clause containing a **Condition**, introduced by **IF** or some equivalent, is called a **CONDITIONAL CLAUSE**. A sentence modified by a conditional clause is called a **CONDITIONAL SENTENCE**.

*e.* A clause expressing the **Purpose** of an action is called a **FINAL CLAUSE**; one expressing its **Result** is called a **CONSECUTIVE CLAUSE**.<sup>1</sup>

*f.* Sentences or clauses are regularly connected by means of **CONJUNCTIONS**; but frequently in Latin — more rarely in English — independent sentences are connected by **RELATIVES**. In this case, the relative is often best translated in English by a conjunction with a demonstrative (see 336. R.): as,

*quo cum venisset, and when he had come there.*

*quae cum ita sint, and since these things are so.*

#### Agreement.

**181.** A word is said to **AGREE** with another when it is required by usage to be in the same **Gender**, **Number**, **Case**, or **Person**.

**182.** The following are the general forms of **Agreement**, sometimes called the **Four Concords**:

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<sup>1</sup> Observe that these classes are not exclusive, but that a single clause may belong to several of them at once. Thus a **Relative** clause may be **subordinate**, or **conditional**; and two **subordinate** clauses may be **co-ordinate** with each other.

1. The agreement of the NOUN in Apposition or as Predicate.
2. The agreement of the ADJECTIVE with its Noun.
3. The agreement of the RELATIVE with its Antecedent.
4. The agreement of the VERB with its Subject.

When a word takes the gender or number of some other word *implied* in that with which it should agree, this use is called **SYNESIS**, or *constructio ad sensum*.

### NOUNS.

183. A noun used to describe another, and denoting the same thing, agrees with it in **CASE**: as,

**Servius rex**, *Servius the king*.  
**ad urbem Athenas**, *to the city [of] Athens*.  
**Cicero consul creatur**, *Cicero is chosen consul*.

### Apposition.

184. When the descriptive noun is in the same part of the sentence (subject or predicate), it is called an **APPOSITIVE**, and the use is called **APPPOSITION**: as,

**externus timor**, **maximum concordiae vinculum**, **jungebat animos** (Liv. ii. 39), *fear of the foreigner, the chief bond of harmony, united hearts*.  
 [Here both nouns belong to the *subject*.]

**quattuor hic**, **primum omen**, **equos vidi** (Æn. iii. 537), *I saw here four horses, the first omen*. [Here both nouns are in the *predicate*.]

**litteras Graecas senex didici** (Cat. M. 8), *I learned Greek when an old man*. [Here **senex** is in apposition with the subject of **didici**, expressing the *time, condition, &c.*, of the act.]

*a.* An appositive with two or more nouns is in the plural: as,  
**Gnaeus et Publius Scipiones**, *the Scipios, Cneius and Publius*.

*b.* The appositive generally agrees in **GENDER** and **NUMBER** when it can: as,

**sequuntur naturam**, **optimam ducem** (Lael. 19), *they follow nature, the best guide*.

**omnium doctrinarum inventrices Athenas** (De Or. i. 4), *Athens, discoverer of all learning*.

*c.* A common noun in apposition with a Locative is put in the **Ablative**, with or without the preposition **in**: as,

**Antiochiaë**, **celebri quondam urbe** (Arch. 3), *at Antioch, once a famous city*.

**Albaë constiterunt in urbe munita** (Phil. iv. 2), *they halted at Alba, a fortified town*.



d. The genitive can be used in apposition with POSSESSIVES, taking the gender and number of the implied subject (compare 197. a): as,

in nostro omnium fletu (Mil. 34), *amid the tears of us all.*

ex Anniana Milonis domo (Att. iv. 3), *out of Annius Milo's house.*

NOTE. — The proper Appositive is sometimes put in the Genitive (see 214. f).

#### Predicate Agreement.

185. When the descriptive noun is used to form a predicate, it is called a PREDICATE NOMINATIVE (or other case, as the construction may require): as,

consules creantur Caesar et Servilius (B. C. iii. 1), *Caesar and Servilius are made consuls.* [Here *consules* is *predicate-nominative* after *creantur*.]

Ancum Marcium regem populus creavit (Liv. i. 32), *the people made Ancus Marcius king.* [Here *regem* is the *predicate accusative*.]

#### ADJECTIVES.

##### Rule of Agreement.

186. Adjectives, Adjective Pronouns, and Participles agree with their nouns in GENDER, NUMBER, and CASE.

*vir fortis, a brave man.*

*urbium magnarum, of great cities.*

*cum ducentis militibus, with 200 soldiers.*

a. An Attributive adjective simply qualifies the noun without the intervention of a verb: as,

*bonus imperator, a good commander.*

b. A Predicate adjective is connected with its noun by *esse*, or a verb of similar meaning, expressed or implied: as,

*stellae lucidae erant, the stars were bright.*

c. A predicate adjective may also be used in Apposition like a noun: as,

*Scipionem vivum vidi, I saw Scipio in his life-time.*

d. With two or more nouns the adjective is plural; also, rarely, when they are connected by *cum*: as,

*Nisus et Euryalus primi (Æn. v. 294), Nisus and Euryalus first.*

*uba cum Labieno capti (B. Afr. 52), Juba and Labienus were taken.*

187. When nouns are of different genders, an attributive adjective agrees with the nearest : as,

multae operae ac laboris, *of much trouble and toil.*

vita moresque mei, *my life and character.*

si res, si vir, si tempus ullum dignum fuit (Mil. 7), *if any thing, if any man, if any time was fit.*

a. A predicate adjective may agree with the nearest of two nouns if the two form one connected idea : as,

factus est strepitus et admurmuratio (Verr. i. 15), *a noise of assent was made.*

N. B. This is only when the Copula agrees with the nearest subject.

b. Generally, a predicate adjective will be masculine, if nouns of different genders mean *living beings*; neuter, if *things without life* : as,

uxor deinde ac liberi amplexi (Liv. ii. 40), *then his wife and children embraced him.*

labor (M.) voluptasque (F.), societate quadam inter se naturali sunt juncta (N.) (id. v. 4), *labor and delight are bound together by a certain natural alliance.*

c. Abstract nouns of the same gender may have a neuter adjective (see 189. c.) : as,

stultitia et temeritas et injustitia . . . sunt fugienda (Fin. iii. 11), *folly, rashness, and injustice are [things] to be shunned.*

d. A masculine or feminine adjective may conform (by *Synesis*) to the gender or number of the persons implied in a noun of different gender or number : as,

pars certare parati (Æn. v. 108), *a part ready to contend.*

duo millia relictī (Liv. xxxvii. 39), *two thousand were left.*

coloniae aliquot deductae, Prisci Latini appellati (id. i. 3), *several colonies were led out [of men] called Old Latins.*

magna pars raptae (id. i. 9), *a large part [of the women] were seized.*

omnis aetas currere obvii (id. xxvii. 51), *[people of] every age ran to meet them.*

e. A superlative in the predicate sometimes takes the gender of a partitive genitive : as,

velocissimum animalium delphīnus est (Plin.), *the dolphin is the swiftest of creatures.*

## Special Uses.

188. Adjectives are often used as Nouns, the masculine usually to denote *men* or *people in general* of that kind, the feminine *women*, and the neuter *things*: as,

omnes, <i>all men (everybody).</i>	omnia, <i>all things (everything).</i>
majores, <i>ancestors.</i>	minores, <i>descendants.</i>
Romani, <i>Romans.</i>	barbari, <i>barbarians.</i>
liberta, <i>a freedwoman.</i>	Sabinae, <i>the Sabine wives.</i>
sapiens, <i>a sage (philosopher).</i>	amicus, <i>a friend.</i>

REMARK. — The singular of adjectives in this use is more rare, except with a few words which have become practically nouns, such as *affinis*, *amicus*, *avārus*, *familiāris*, *propinquus*, *sapiens*, *vicinus*, and neuters like those in 189. *a*; the plural is very frequent, and may be used of any adjective or participle, to denote those in general described by it.

*a.* Certain adjectives have become practically nouns, and are often modified by other adjectives: as,

meus aequalis, *a man of my own age.*

familiaris tuus, *an intimate friend of yours* (comp. 218. *d*).

*b.* When any ambiguity would arise from the use of the adjective alone, a noun must be added: as,

boni, *the good*; omnia, *everything (all things)*; but —

vir bonus, *a good man* (cf. Remark above).

potentia omnium rerum, *power over everything.*

*c.* Many adjectives are used alone in the singular, with the added meaning of some noun which is understood from constant association: as,

Africus [ventus], *the south-west wind.*

vitulina [caro], *veal (calf's flesh).*

fera [bestia], *a wild beast.*

patria [terra], *the fatherland.*

hiberna [castra], *winter quarters.*

triremis [nāvis], *a three-banked galley.*

argentarius [faber], *a silversmith.*

regia [domus], *the palace.*

NOTE. — These are *specific* in meaning, not *generic* like those above.

*d.* A noun is sometimes used as an adjective, and may be qualified by an adverb: as,

victor exercitus, *the victorious army.*

servum pecus, *a servile troop.*

admodum puer, *quite a boy (childish).*

magis vir, *more of a man.*

189. A Neuter adjective has the following special uses:—

a. The neuter *singular* may denote either a single object or an abstract quality: as,

*rapto vivere, to live by plunder.*

*in arido, on dry ground.*

*honestum, an honorable act, or virtue (as a quality).*

*opus est maturato, there is need of haste (cf. impersonal passives).*

b. The neuter *plural* is used to signify objects in general having the quality denoted, and hence the abstract idea: as,

*honesta, honorable deeds (in general).*

*praeterita, the past.*

*omnes fortia laudant, all men praise bravery.*

c. A neuter Appositive or Predicate may be used with a noun of different gender: as,

*turpitudō pejus est quam dolor (Tusc. ii. 13), disgrace is [a thing] worse than pain.*

d. A neuter adjective is used in agreement with an Infinitive or a Substantive Clause: as,

*aliud est errare Caesarem nolle, aliud nolle misereri (Lig. 5), it is one thing to be unwilling that Caesar should err, another to be unwilling that he should pity.*

#### Possessives.

190. Possessive and other derivative adjectives are often used in Latin where English has a possessive case, or noun with a preposition (compare 184. d; 197. a): as,

*pugna Cannensis, the fight at Cannæ.*

*C. Blossius Cumanus, Caius Blossius of Cumæ.*

*aliena domus, another man's house.*

*Caesarina celeritas (Att. xvi. 10), a despatch like Cæsar's.*

a. Possessive adjectives are often used without a noun to denote some special class or relation: as,

*nostri, our countrymen or men of our party.*

*Sullani, the veterans of Sylla's army.*

*Pompeiani, the partisans of Pompey.*

b. A possessive adjective is sometimes apparently used for the Objective Genitive by a different conception of the idea: as,

*metus hostilis (Jug. 41), fear of the enemy.*

*femineâ in poenâ (Virg.), in the punishment of a woman.*

*periculo invidiæ meæ (Cat. ii. 2), at the risk of odium against me.*

**191.** An adjective, with the subject or object, is often used to qualify the *act*, having the force of an adverb: **as**,

*primus venit, he came first (was the first to come).*

*nullus dubito, I no way doubt.*

*laeti audiēre, they were glad to hear.*

*erat Romae frequens (Rosc. Am. 6), he was often at Rome.*

*serus in caelum redeas (Hor. Od. i. 2), may'st thou return late to heaven.*

**192.** When two qualities of an object are compared, both adjectives (or adverbs) are in the comparative: **as**,

*longior quam latior acies erat (Liv. xxvii. 48), the line was longer than it was broad (or, rather long than broad).*

*a.* Where **magis** is used, both adjectives are in the positive: **as**,  
*clari, magis quam honesti (Jug. 8), more renowned than honorable.*

*b.* A comparative with a positive, or even two positives, may be connected by **quam** (a rare and less elegant use): **as**,

*vehementius quam caute (Agric. 4), with more fury than good heed.*

*claris majoribus quam vetustis (Ann. iv. 61), of a family more famous than old.*

**193.** Superlatives (and more rarely comparatives) denoting order and succession—also *medius, ceterus, reliquus*—usually designate not *what object*, but *what part of it*, is meant: **as**,

*summus mons, the top of the hill.*

*in ultima platea, at the end of the place.*

*prior actio, the earlier part of an action.*

*reliqui captivi, the rest of the prisoners.*

*in colle medio (B. G. i. 24), on the middle of the hill.*

*inter ceteram planitiem (Jug. 92), in a region elsewhere level.*

**NOTE.**—A similar use is found in such expressions as *serā (multā) nocte*. But also, *medium viae, multum diei*.

#### PRONOUNS.

**NOTE.**—Pronouns indicate some person or thing without either naming or describing. They are derived from a distinct class of roots, which seem to have denoted only ideas of place and direction, and from which nouns or verbs can very rarely be formed. Pronouns may there-

fore stand for Nouns when the object, being present to the senses or imagination, needs only to be pointed out. Some indicate the object in itself, without reference to its class, and have no distinction of gender. These are PERSONAL PRONOUNS. They therefore stand syntactically for Nouns, and have the same construction as nouns. Some indicate a particular object of a class, and take the gender of the individuals of that class. These are called ADJECTIVE PRONOUNS. They therefore stand for Adjectives, and have the same construction as adjectives. Some are used in both ways; and, though called adjective pronouns, may also be treated as personal, taking, however, the gender of the object indicated.

#### Personal.

194. The Personal Pronouns have, in general, the same construction as nouns.

a. The personal pronouns are not expressed in Latin, except for distinction or emphasis (compare 346. d): as,

te voco, *I call you*; but—

quis me vocat? ego te voco, *who calls me? it is I.*

b. The personal pronouns have two forms for the genitive plural, that in *um* being used *partitively*, and that in *i* oftenest *objectively*: as,

major nostrum, *the elder of us.*

habetis ducem memorem vestri, oblitum sui (Cat. iv. 9), *you have a leader who thinks of you and forgets himself.*

pars nostrum, *a part of us.*

nostri melior pars animus est (Sen.), *the better part of us is the soul.*

NOTE.—“One of themselves” is expressed by *unus ex suis* or *ipsis* (rarely *ex se*) or *suorum*. The genitives *nostrum*, *vestrum*, are rarely used objectively: *cupidus vestrum* (Verr. iii. 96), *custos vestrum* (Cat. iii. 12).

#### Demonstrative.

195. The Demonstrative Pronouns<sup>1</sup> are treated as adjectives in agreement, but are often used as personal pronouns. This use is regular in the oblique cases, especially of *is*: as,

Caesar et exercitus ejus, *Cæsar and his army.*

vidi eum rogāvique, *I saw him and asked [him].*

<sup>1</sup> For the special significations of these demonstratives, see page 53.

a. The demonstratives are used as pronouns of reference, to indicate a noun or phrase with emphasis, like the English THAT: as,

nullam virtus aliam mercedem desiderat praeter hanc laudis (Arch. 11),  
*Virtue wants no other reward except that [just spoken of] of praise.*

b. The demonstrative as a pronoun of reference is commonly omitted, or some other construction is preferred: as,

memoriae artem quam oblivionis malo, *I prefer the art of memory to that of forgetfulness.*

Caesaris exercitus Pompeianos ad Pharsalum vicit, *the army of Caesar defeated that of Pompey at Pharsalus.*

c. When a quality is ascribed with emphasis to an object already named, **is** or **idem** (often with the concessive **quidem**) is used to indicate that object: as,

vincula, eaque sempiterna (Cat. iv. 4), *imprisonment, and that perpetual.*

d. An adjective pronoun agrees in gender with a word in *apposition* or a *predicate* rather than with its antecedent: as,

rerum caput hoc erat, hic fons (Hor. Ep. i. 17), *this was the head of things, this the source.*

**eam** sapientiam interpretantur **quam** adhuc mortalis nemo est consecutus [for **id** . . . **quod**] (Lael. 5), *they explain that [thing] to be wisdom which no man ever yet attained.*

e. **Idem** is often equivalent to an adverb or adverbial phrase (*also, too, yet, at the same time*): as,

oratio splendida et grandis et eadem in primis faceta (Brut. 79),  
*an oration, brilliant, able, and very witty too.*

cum [haec] dicat, negat **idem** in Deo esse gratiam (N. D. i. 43),  
*when he says this, he denies also that there is mercy with God.*

f. **Ipse**, *self* (intensive), is used with any of the other pronouns or a noun for the sake of emphasis: as,

turpe mihi ipsi videbatur (Cic.), *even to me it seems disgraceful.*

id ipsum, *that very thing.*

quod ipsum, *which of itself alone.*

in eum ipsum locum, *to that very place.*

REMARK. — The emphasis of **ipse** is often expressed in English by *just, very, mere, &c.* (see above examples).

g. **Ipse** is used alone as an emphatic pronoun of the third person: as,

mihi satis, ipsis non satis (Cic.), *enough for me, not for themselves.*

omnes boni quantum in ipsis fuit (id.), *all good men so far as was in their power.*

beatos illos qui cum adesse ipsis non licebat aderant tamen (id.), *happy they who, when it was not allowed them to attend in person, still were there.*

et nomen pacis dulce est, et ipsa res salutaris (id.), *the name of Peace is sweet, and the thing itself is wholesome.*

**h. Ipse** is used alone to emphasize an omitted subject of the first or second person : as,

vobiscum ipsi recordamini (Cic.), *remember in your own minds.*

**i. Ipse** sometimes refers to a principal personage, to distinguish him from subordinate persons : as,

ipse dixit (cf. αὐτὸς ἔφα), *HE (the Master) said it.*

Nomentanus erat super ipsum (Hor.), *Nomentanus was above [the host] himself (at table).*

**k. Ipse** is often (is rarely) used instead of an *indirect reflexive*, to avoid ambiguity ; and in later writers is sometimes found instead of the direct reflexive : as,

cur de sua virtute aut de ipsius diligentia desperarent? (B. G. i. 40), *why (he asked) should they despair of their own courage or his diligence?*

qui mortuo Dario ipsas tueretur reperisse (Q. C. x. 5), *we found one (said she) to protect us after the death of Darius.*

omnia aut ipsos aut hostes populosos (id. iii. 5), *either they or the enemy had laid all waste.*

**l. Ipse** is usually put in the case of the Subject, even where the real emphasis appears to be or even is on a reflexive in the Predicate : as,

me ipse consolor, *I console myself (not me ipsum, as the English would lead us to expect).*

#### Reflexive.

**196.** The Reflexive Pronoun (**se**),<sup>1</sup> and usually its corresponding possessive (**suum**), is used in some part of the Predicate,<sup>2</sup> referring to the Subject of the sentence or clause : as,

virtus se novit, *virtue knows itself.*

Brutus amicum suum occidit, *Brutus killed his friend.*

promisit se venturum [esse],<sup>2</sup> *he promised to come.*

<sup>1</sup> This seems to have been originally the personal pronoun of the third person (Skr. *sya* and Gr. *ἐφείς*), but came by use to be purely reflexive.

<sup>2</sup> This is very often a form of Indirect Discourse. In this case, the Reflexive in a subordinate clause may often be ambiguous, though less frequently in Latin



a. In subordinate clauses, the reflexive is commonly used in reference to the subject of the main clause: as,

Iccius nuntium ad eum mittit, nisi subsidium sibi submittatur, etc. (B. G. ii. 6), *sends him a message that unless relief be furnished him* (Iccius), &c.

quem salutem suam crediturum sibi (Q. C. iii. 8)? *who would trust his safety to him* [Darius]?

b. The Reflexive sometimes refers to a main clause which has been grammatically suppressed: as,

libros quos pater suus reliquisset (Cic.), *books which [he said] his father had left.*

c. The Reflexive may refer to any noun in the same clause, on which emphasis is thrown, so that it becomes in a manner the subject of discourse: as,

Socratem cives sui interfecerunt, *Socrates was put to death by his own fellow-citizens.* [Here the emphasis is preserved in English by the change of voice.]

d. The Reflexive may follow a verbal noun or adjective: as, conservatio sui, *self-preservation.*

impotens sui (Q. C.), *without self-control.*

homines cum sui similibus servis (Phil. i. 2), *men with slaves like themselves.*

e. The Reflexive refers to the subject implied in an infinitive or verbal abstract used indefinitely: as,

bellum est sua vitia nosse (Cic.), *it is a fine thing to know one's own faults.*

f. *Inter se* is regularly used to express reciprocal action: as, cohaerentia inter se, *things consistent with each other.*

#### Possessive.

197. The Possessive Pronouns are derivative adjectives, which take the gender, number, and case of the noun they are used with, not of the possessor: as,

**Caesar uxorem suam repudiavit, Caesar put away his wife.**

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than in English. Thus in the sentence "A replied to B that he thought C (his brother) more unjust to himself than to his own friend," the syntax is perfectly simple and clear, but the meaning not; *he* and *his* may refer to A, to B, or to some third person; *himself* and *his own* to either A, B, or C. A part of the ambiguity would be removed, in Latin, by using *se* or *eum*, *ejus*, *suus*, or *ipsius*; but a part would necessarily remain, and could not be removed by any rule of syntax, but only by the exercise of common sense in reference to the context.

a. Possessives are regularly used for the genitive of possession, and more rarely for the objective genitive (compare 190) : as,

*domus mea, my house.*

*periculo invidiae meae* (Cat. ii. 2), *at risk of odium against me.*

b. The possessives have often the acquired meaning of *favorable* or *propitious*<sup>1</sup> towards the subject indicated : as,

*tempore tuo pugnasti?* *did you fight at a fit time?*

*ignoranti quem portum petat nullus suus ventus est* (Sen. Ep. 70), *to him who knows not what port he is bound to, no wind is fair.*

c. The possessives are regularly omitted (like other pronouns) when they are plainly implied in the context : as,

*amicum gratulatur, he greets his friend* [*amicum suum* would be distinctive ; *suum amicum* would be emphatically "his own" friend].

d. Possessives are often used instead of nouns, implying some special relation :<sup>2</sup> as,

*nostri, our countrymen, or men of our party.*

*suos continebat* (B. C. i. 15), *he held his men in check.*

e. A possessive in any case may have a genitive in apposition : as,

*mea solius causa, for my sake only.*

*nostra omnium patria, the country of us all.*

*suum ipsius regnum, his own kingdom.*

#### Relative.

NOTE. — A Relative Pronoun is properly an Adjective, in agreement with some word either expressed in its own clause, or (often) in the antecedent (demonstrative) clause. The full construction would require the antecedent to be expressed in both clauses, with more commonly a corresponding *demonstrative* to which the relative refers : as, *erant omnino duo itinera quibus itineribus domo exire possent* (B. G. i. 6). But one of these nouns is most commonly omitted. This word is, in Latin, very frequently found (rarely in English) in the relative clause, — sometimes in that alone. Hence relatives serve two uses : 1. as Nouns in their own clause, 2. as Connectives ; and thus are often equivalent to a *demonstrative* and *conjunction* combined. The connective force is not original, but is developed from an interrogative or indefinite meaning specialized by use. The clauses were originally co-ordinate.

<sup>1</sup> This use is not strictly idiomatic, but is a natural development of meaning, and may often be rendered literally.

<sup>2</sup> There is no reason to suppose an ellipsis here ; but the adjective becomes a noun like other adjectives (see 188).

Thus, *Qui quietus animo est, is est sapiens*: "Who (some one) is undisturbed in soul? That [man] is a sage." This form of relative has in Latin supplanted other forms which were demonstrative in their origin, as in *Liber quem dedisti*: "The book — you gave it."

198. A Relative agrees with its Antecedent in GENDER and NUMBER; but its CASE depends on the construction of the clause in which it stands: as,

*puer qui venit, the boy who came.*

*liber quem legis, the book you are reading.*

*via quā ambulat, the way he walks in.*

This rule applies to all relative words so far as they are variable in form: as, *qualis, quantus, quicumque*.

199. A relative generally agrees in gender with a noun (appositive or predicate) in its own clause, rather than with an antecedent of different gender: as,

*mare etiam quem Neptunum esse dicebas* (N. D. iii. 20), *the sea, too, which you said was Neptune.*

a. A relative may (rarely) by *attraction* agree with its antecedent in Case: as,

*si aliquid agas eorum quorum consuesti* (Fam. v. 14), *if you should do something of what you are used to.*

b. A relative may agree in gender and number with an *implied* antecedent: as,

*quantum genus . . . qui aere vetere alieno vacillant* (Cat. ii. 10), *a fourth class, that are staggering under old debts.*

*unus ex eo numero qui parati erant* (Jug. 35), *one of the number [of those] who were ready.*

*conjuravere pauci . . . de qua [conjurazione] dicam* (Sall. C. 18), *a few have conspired . . . of which [conspiracy] I will speak.*

200. The antecedent noun sometimes appears in both clauses; usually only in the one that precedes; sometimes it is wholly omitted. Thus —

a. The noun may be repeated in the relative clause: as,  
*loci natura erat haec quem locum nostri delegerant* (B. G. ii. 18), *the nature of the ground which our men had chosen was this.*

b. The noun may appear only in the relative clause: as,  
*quas res in consulatu nostro gessimus attigit hic versibus* (Arch. 11), *he has touched in verse the things which we did in our consulship.*  
*urbem quam statuo vestra est* (Æn. i. 573), *yours is the city which I found.*

NOTE. — In the latter case, a demonstrative (*is, ille* or *hic*) usually stands in the antecedent clause : <sup>1</sup> as,

quae pars civitatis calamitatem populo Romano intulerat, ea princeps poenas persolvit (B. G. i. 12), *that part of the State which had brought disaster on the Roman people was the first to pay the penalty.*

c. The antecedent noun may be entirely omitted, especially an indefinite one : as,

qui decimae legionis aquilam ferebat (B. G. iv. 25), [the man] *who bore the eagle of the tenth legion.*

qui cognoscerent misit (id. i. 21), *he sent [men] to reconnoitre.*

d. A predicate adjective (especially a superlative) agreeing with the antecedent may stand in the relative clause : as,

vasa ea quae pulcherrima apud eum viderat (Verr. iv. 27), *those most beautiful vessels which he had seen at his house (nearly equal to the vessels of which he had seen some very beautiful ones).*

e. The phrase *id quod* or *quae res* is used (instead of *quod* alone) to relate to an idea or group of words or an idea :

[obtrectatum est] Gabinio dicam anne Pompeio? an utrique — id quod est verius? (Manil. 19), *an affront is offered shall I say to Gabinius or Pompey? or — which is truer — to both?*

201. In the use of relatives, the following points are to be observed : —

a. The relative is never omitted in Latin, as it often is in English : as,

liber quem mihi dedisti, *the book you gave me.*

is sum qui semper fui, *I am the same man I always was.*

eo in loco est de quo tibi locutus sum, *he is in the place I told you of.*

b. A relative clause in Latin often takes the place of other constructions in English, particularly of a participle, appositive, or noun of agency : as,

leges quae nunc sunt, *the existing laws.*

Caesar qui Galliam vicit, *Caesar the conqueror of Gaul.*

justa gloria quae est fructus virtutis, *true glory the fruit of virtue.*

c. In formal or emphatic discourse, the relative clause usually comes first, often containing the antecedent noun : as,

quae mala cum multis patimur ea nobis leviora videntur, *the evils we suffer [in common] with many seem to us lighter.*

<sup>1</sup> In a sentence of this class, the relative clause in Latin usually stands first ; but, in translating, the noun should generally (except with an indefinite relative) be transferred in its proper case to the antecedent clause, as in the example above quoted.

d. When the antecedent noun is in apposition with the main clause, or some word of it, it is put in the relative clause : *as*,

*firmi amici, cujus generis est magna penuria, steadfast friends, a class of which there is great lack.*

e. A relative often stands with a relative adverb or an interrogative at the beginning of a sentence or clause, where in English a demonstrative must be used : *as*,

*quae cum ita sint, and since these things are so.*

*quorum quod simile factum ? (Cat. iv. 8), what deed of theirs like this ?*

f. The relative Adverb is regularly used in referring to a Locative : *as*,

*mortuus Cumis quo se contulerat (Liv. ii. 21), having died at Cumæ, whither he had retired [here in quam urbem might be used, but not in quas].*

g. The relative words *qui, qualis, quantus, &c.*, are often rendered simply by *as*<sup>1</sup> in English : *as*,

*idem quod semper, the same as always.*

*talis dux qualem Hannibalem novimus, such a chief as we know Hannibal [to have been].*

h. The general construction of relatives is found in clauses introduced by relative or temporal adverbs : *as, ubi, quo, unde, cum, quare.*

[For the use of the Relative in idiomatic clauses of Result (*est qui, dignus qui, quam qui, etc.*), see 320. *a, c, f.*]

[For the use of Interrogatives, see 210].

#### Indefinite.

202. The Indefinite Pronouns are used to indicate that some person or thing is meant, without indicating what one.

N. B. For the significations of the compounds of *qui* and *quis*, see 105 (pp. 55, 56).

a. Of the particular indefinites *quis, quispiam, nescio quis, aliquis, quidam* (meaning *some* or *any*), *quis* is least definite, and *quidam* the most : *as*,

*dixerit quis (quispiam), some one may say.*

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<sup>1</sup> Compare 106. *b.* The word *as* in this use is strictly a relative, though invariable in form.

aliqui philosophi ita putant, *some philosophers think so* [quidam would mean certain particular persons defined to the speaker's mind though not named].

habitant hic quaedam mulieres pauperculae, *some poor women live here* [i.e. some women he knows of; *some women or other* would be aliquae or nescio quae].

b. In a particular negative, **aliquis** is regularly used, when in a general negative **quisquam** or **ullus** would be required : as,

sine aliquo metu, [you cannot do this] *without some fear*.

sine ullo metu, [you may do this] *without any fear*.

c. Of the general indefinites, **quivis** or **quilibet** (*any you will*) is used chiefly in affirmative, **quisquam** and **ullus** (*any at all*) in negative, interrogative, or conditional clauses : as,

quidlibet modo aliquid (Cic.), *any thing you will, provided it be something*.

cuius potest accidere quod cuiquam potest, *what can happen to any [one] man can happen to any man [whatever]*.

cur cuiquam misi prius, *why did I send to any body before [you] ?*

minus habeo virium quam vestrum utervis, *I have less strength than either of you* (for the form *utervis*, see 83).

non cuivis homini contingit adire Corinthum, *it is not every man's luck to go to Corinth* [non cuiquam, not any man's].

NOTE.—The use of these indefinites is very various, and must be learned from the Lexicon or from practice. The choice among them often depends merely on the point of view of the speaker, and they are often practically interchangeable. The differences are (with few exceptions) those of logic, not of syntax.

d. The Distributive **quisque** (*every*), **uterque** (*each*), or **unus quisque** (*every single one*), used in general assertions, is equivalent to a plural, and sometimes has a plural verb : as,

bonus liber melior est quisque quo major, *the larger a good book is, the better*.

ambo exercitus suas quisque abeunt domos, *both armies go away every man to his home*.

uterque utrique erat exercitus in conspectu, *each army was in sight of the other*.

e. **Quisque** is regularly placed in a dependent clause if there is one : as,

quo quisque est sollertior, hoc docet iracundius (Rosc. Com. ii.), *the keener-witted a man is, the more impatiently he teaches*.

f. **Nemo** is often used as a pronoun, occasionally even with a noun in agreement : as, *vir nemo bonus* (Leg. ii. 16).

203. The expressions *alter . . . alter, alius . . . alius*, may be used reciprocally : as,

hi fratres alter alterum amant, *these brothers love each other.*

a. *Alius* is simply *another* ; *alter* is *the other* (of two) or *the second* ;<sup>1</sup> *ceteri*, *all the rest or others.*

b. *Alius* and *alter* are often used to express *one* as well as *the other* of the objects referred to :<sup>2</sup> as,

alter consulum, *one of the [two] consuls.*

aliud est maledicere, aliud accusare (Cic.), *it is one thing to slander, another to accuse.*

c. *Alius* with another case of the same word expresses shortly a double statement : as,

alius aliud petit, *one man seeks one thing, one another.*

alius aliâ viâ civitatem auxerunt (Liv. i. 21), *they enlarged the State each in his own way.*

#### VERBS.

204. A Verb agrees with its subject-nominative in Number and Person : as,

ego statuo, *I resolve.*

oratio est habita, *the plea was spoken.*

a. A Verb having a Relative as its subject takes the person of the expressed or implied Antecedent : as,

adsum qui feci (Æn. ix. 427), *here am I who did it.*

b. The verb sometimes agrees in number, and in a periphrastic form in gender, with a predicate noun or one in apposition : as,

non omnis error stultitia est dicenda (Parad. vi. 3), *not every error should be called folly.* [So *Athenae patria mea est*, not *sunt*.]

Corinthus lumen Graeciae extinctum est, *Corinth the light of Greece is put out.*

205. Two or more singular subjects take a verb in the plural ; also, rarely, when one is in the ablative with *cum* (compare 186. d) : as,

pater et avus mortui sunt, *his father and grandfather are dead.*

dux cum aliquot principibus capiuntur (Liv. xxi. 60), *the general and several chiefs are taken.*

<sup>1</sup> Compare in English *every other day* for *every second day*.

<sup>2</sup> Either one may be "the other" according to the way you look at them.

*a.* When the subjects are of different *persons*, the verb will be in the first rather than the second, and in the second rather than the third : as,

si tu et Tullia valetis ego et Cicero valemus (Fam. xiv. 5), *if you and Tullia are well, Cicero and I are well.* [Notice that the first person is also *first in order*, not last, as by courtesy in English.]

*b.* If the subjects are joined by disjunctives, or if they are considered as a single whole, the verb is singular : as,

neque fides neque iuramentum neque illum misericordia repressit (Ter. Ad.), *not faith, nor oath, nay, nor mercy, checked him.*

Senatus populusque Romanus intellegit (Fam. v. 8), *the Roman Senate and people understand.* [Here the phrase *Senatus*, &c., is the official designation of the government.]

*c.* A collective noun may take a plural verb : as,  
pars praedas agebant (Jug. 32), *a part brought in booty.*

REMARK. — *Quisque* is very often used in apposition with a plural subject, and perhaps in all cases where it has a plural verb should be so considered : as,

suum quisque habeat quod suum est (Plaut. Curc.), *let every one keep his own* [properly, *let them keep every man his own*].

*d.* When the action of the verb belongs to the subjects *separately*, it may agree with one and be understood with the others : as,  
intercedit M. Antonius et Cassius tribuni plebis (B. C. i. 2), *Anthony and Cassius, tribunes of the people, interpose.*

**206.** The Subject of the verb, and sometimes the verb, is omitted in certain cases.

*a.* The Personal Pronoun, as subject, is usually omitted unless emphatic : thus,

loquor, *I speak* ; ego loquor, *it is I that speak.*

*b.* An *indefinite* subject is often omitted. This is usually a plural subject, as in *dicunt*, *ferunt*, *perhibent* (they say) ; but sometimes singular, as *inquit* (Tusc. i. 39), referring to a class of reasoners just spoken of.

*c.* The Verb is often omitted in certain phrases : as,  
quorsum haec [spectant] ? *what does this aim at ?*  
ex ungue leonem [cognosces], *you will know a lion by his claw.*  
quid multa ? *what need of many words ?*  
quid ? quod, *what of this, that, &c.*

The indicative and infinitive of *esse* are most frequently omitted ; often also, *dico* and *facio*.



## PARTICLES.

## 1. — Adverbs.

**207.** Adverbs are used to modify Verbs, Adjectives, and other Adverbs.

NOTE. — The proper function of Adverbs as petrified (obsolete) case-forms is to modify Verbs; and so their name denotes. They also modify Adjectives, as showing the manner or degree of the exercise or manifestation of the quality described. More rarely they modify other Adverbs, because they are themselves case-forms of adjectives, and kindred with them. Very rarely, in poetry, adverbs are also used with Nouns containing a verbal idea, or with those containing an adjective idea, as in the phrase *tua semper lenitas*. Many adverbs, especially relative adverbs, serve as connectives, and are hardly to be distinguished from conjunctions (see 25. i).

a. A Demonstrative or Relative Adverb is often equivalent to the corresponding Pronoun with a Preposition (see 201. f): as,

eo (= in ea) imponit vasa (Jug. 75), *upon them* [the beasts] *he puts the camp-utensils*.

apud eos quo (= ad quos) se contulit (Verr. iv. 18), *among those to whom he resorted*.

qui eum necasset unde ipse natus esset (R. Am. 26), i.e. *one who should have killed his own father*.

b. The adverbs *propius*, *proxime* (like the adjectives *propior*, *proximus*), *pridie*, *postridie*, are sometimes followed by the Accusative without any preposition; *palam*, *procul*, *simul*, by the Ablative: as,

quam proxime hostem (Att. vi. 5), *as near the enemy as I can*.

postridie ludos (id. xvi. 4), *the day after the games*.

palam populo (Liv.), *in presence of the people*.

REMARK. — *Pridie* and *postridie* are also used with the genitive; *clam* may take either accusative, ablative, or (rarely) the dative.

c. Many perfect participles used as nouns regularly retain the adverb which modified them as participles: as,

praeclare factum, *a glorious deed* (*a thing gloriously done*).

## 2. — Conjunctions.

**208.** Copulative and disjunctive Conjunctions connect similar constructions, and are regularly followed by the same case or mood as that preceding.

*a.* Conjunctions of comparison (as *ut, quam, tanquam*) also connect similar cases or moods : as,

*perge ut instituisti* (Rep. ii. 11), *go on as you have begun.*

*his igitur quam physicis potius credendum existimas* (Div. ii. 26) ?  
*do you think these are more to be trusted than the scientists ?*

*hominem callidiorem vidi neminem quam Phormionem* (Ter.), *a shrewder man I never saw than Phormio* (compare 247).

*b.* Two or more words are often joined without conjunctions : <sup>1</sup> as, *omnes di, homines ; summi, medii, infimi ; liberi, servi*. If a conjunction is used where there are more than two words or phrases, it is commonly used with all except the first : as, *summā fide et constantiā et justitiā*. .

*c.* Two adjectives belonging to the same noun are regularly connected by a conjunction : as,

*multae et graves causae*, *many weighty reasons.*

*d.* Many words properly adverbs may be used correlatively, and lose their adverbial force and become conjunctions : as, *cum (tum) . . tum, modo . . modo, simul . . simul, quā . . quā, nunc . . nunc* (see 107, p. 57).

*e.* Conjunctions are often doubled, for the sake of emphasis or to bind a sentence more closely to the preceding : as, *at vero, itaque ergo, nam-que, et-enim*.

*f.* Several conjunctions serve to introduce subordinate clauses requiring a change of Mood (see Chap. V.).

### 3. — Negative Particles.

[For the Negative Particles, see 149. *e*, p. 99.]

209. In the use of the Negative Particles, the following points are to be observed :—

*a.* Two negatives are equivalent to an affirmative, as in English. But a *general* negation is not destroyed —

1. By a following *ne . . quidem* or *non modo* ;

2. By succeeding negatives each introducing a separate subordinate member ;

3. By *neque* introducing another co-ordinate member.

*b.* The negative is regularly joined to the connective, and sometimes to other words ; so that the form of the negative in Latin differs from that in English in such phrases as —

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<sup>1</sup> The omission of conjunctions is called *Asyndeton*.

neque (nec), and . . not, but . . not.

nec quisquam, and no one.

nulli or neutri credo, I do not believe any or either [of them].

nego haec esse vera (not dico haec non esse vera), I say this is not true.

nihil unquam audiui jucundius, I never heard anything jollier.

c. A statement is often made emphatic by denying its contrary<sup>1</sup> (compare *nonnullus*, *nonnemo*, etc., 150. a).

d. The particle *immo*, *nay*, is used to contradict some part of the statement or question, or its form; in the latter case, the same statement is often repeated in a stronger form, so that *immo* becomes nearly equivalent to *yes* (*nay but, nay rather*).

e. With *si*, *if*, and *quo*, *in order that*, *minus* becomes equivalent to *non*; so *minime* often has the meaning *not at all*.

[For *do not* in Prohibitions, see 269. a.]

#### QUESTIONS.

210. Questions in Latin are introduced by special Interrogative words, and are not distinguished by the order of words, as in English.

[For the Interrogative Particles, see page 99. d.]

a. A question of *simple fact*, requiring the answer YES or NO, is formed in Latin by adding the syllable *-ne* (enclitic) to the emphatic word: as,

tune id veritus es (Cic.)? *did you fear that?*

b. Sometimes the interrogative particle is omitted, when no sign of a question appears except in the punctuation: as,

patere tua consilia non sentis (Cat. i. 1)? *do you not see that your schemes are manifest?*

c. When the syllable *-ne* is added to a negative word, — as *nonne*, — an affirmative answer is expected. The particle *num* implies a negative answer: as,

nonne animadvertis (N. D. iii. 35), *do you not observe?*

num dubium est (R. Am. 37), *there is no doubt, is there?*

d. The particle *-ne* added to the verb often has the force of *nonne*, and implies an affirmative answer (rarely elsewhere): as,

meministine me in Senatu dicere (Cat. i. 3)? *don't you remember my saying in the Senate?*

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<sup>1</sup> This form of expression is called *Litotes*.

REMARK. — The enclitic *-ne* is sometimes added to other interrogative particles: as, *utrumne, anne, nonne*.

*e.* A question concerning *some special circumstance* is formed by prefixing to the sentence an Interrogative Pronoun or Adverb (see List, p. 57): as,

*quid est quod jam amplius expectes* (Cat. i. 3)? *what is there for you to look for any more?*

REMARK. — A question of this form becomes an exclamation by omitting the mark of interrogation, or (in speech) by changing the inflection of the voice: as, *qualis vir erat! quot calamitates passi sumus!* *ut, how*, is used in Indirect questions; and in old Latin also in Direct: as, *ut valet? how is she?* (Plaut.).

*f.* The particles *nam* (enclitic) and *tandem* are added to these interrogatives for the sake of emphasis: as,

*quisnam est?* (or *quis tandem est?* which would be stronger), *pray who is it?*

*ubinam gentium sumus* (Cat. i. 4), *where in the world are we?*

REMARK. — The form of Indirect Questions (in English introduced by *whether*, or by an interrogative pronoun or adverb) is the same as that of direct; the difference being only in the verb, which regularly takes the Subjunctive. In indirect questions *num* loses its peculiar force. The phrases *nescio quis, mirum quam*, and the like, are Indefinites in meaning, and do not require the subjunctive. The expressions *nescio an, dubito an*, and the like, incline to the Affirmative: *I almost think*.

### Double Questions.

**211.** In Double or Alternative Questions, *utrum* or *-ne, whether*, stands in the first member; *an, anne, or; annon, necne, or not*, in the second: as,

*utrum nescis, an pro nihilo id putas* (Fam. x. 26), *is it that you don't know? or do you think nothing of it?*

*quaero servosne an liberos* (Rosc. Am. 27), *I ask whether slaves or free.*

REMARK. — In direct questions, *annon* is more frequently found in the alternative; in indirect, *necne*.

*a.* The interrogative particle is often omitted in the first member; when *-ne (anne, necne)* may stand in the second: as,

*Gabinio dicam anne Pompeio* (Manil. 19), *shall I say to Gabinius or to Pompey?*

*sunt haec tua verba necne* (Tusc. iii. 18), *are these your words or not?*

b. Sometimes the former member is omitted or implied ; and an (*anne*) alone asks a question, — usually with indignation or surprise : as,

an tu miseros putas illos (Tusc. i. 7), *what ! do you think those men wretched ?*

c. When *utrum* asks a question to which there is no alternative, the second member may be omitted : as,

utrum in clarissimis est civibus is quem . . . (Flacc. 16), *is he among the noblest citizens, whom, &c.*

d. The following exhibits the various forms of alternative questions : —

<i>utrum</i>	. . .	<i>an</i>
—	. . .	<i>an (anne)</i>
<i>-ne</i>	. . .	<i>an</i>
—	. . .	<i>-ne</i>

#### Question and Answer.

212. As there is no one word in Latin meaning simply *yes* or *no*, in answering a question the verb is generally repeated : as,

valetne, *is he well ?* valet, *yes (he is well).*

eratne tecum, *was he with you ?* non erat, *no (he was not).*

a. An intensive or negative particle is sometimes used in answer to a direct question : thus *vero* (*in truth*), or *etiam* (*even so*) may have the meaning of *yes* ; and *non* (*not*), or *minime* (*least-of-all*), *no*, *by no means*.

The particles thus used are, — for YES : *etiam, ita, factum, vero, sane ; ita vero, ita est, sane quidem* ; for NO : *non, minime, minime vero, non quidem, non hercle vero*.

b. In the answer to an alternative question, one member of the alternative must be repeated : as,

tune an frater erat, *was it you or your brother ?*

ego [eram], *it was I.*

REMARK. — From alternative questions must be distinguished those in which some part of the question only is alternative, not the question itself. These have the common distinctive particles, *aut* or *vel (-ve)*.

## Chapter II. — Construction of Cases.

NOTE. — The Cases of nouns express their relations to other words in the sentence. Originally the family of languages to which Latin belongs had at least seven cases, besides the Vocative, all expressing different relations. Of these the Locative and Instrumental cases were lost, and their functions divided among the others.

The Nominative, Accusative, and Vocative (so far as this can be called a case) without doubt express the oldest forms of case-relation (*Direct Cases*: 31. N.). The Nominative, when it differs in form from the Accusative, usually indicates the relation of Subject by the pronominal suffix *s* (p. 14. n. 2.); the Vocative, when it differs from the nominative, perhaps never had any suffix. The Accusative, most frequently formed by the suffix *m*, originally connected the noun loosely with the verb-idea, whether expressed by a verb or otherwise: compare the use of Stems in composition, as *armiger* with *arma gerere*; *fidicen* with *fidibus canere*; *hanc tangere* with *hanc tactio* (Plaut.). The various uses of the accusative were specialized from this vague relation.

The other cases were formed by combination with various pronominal suffixes for more special uses, at first probably expressing relations of place or direction (TO, FROM, AT, WITH: *Indirect Cases*). The original meanings of these cases have become confused with each other, so that in many instances they are no longer distinguishable either in form or meaning. Thus the Locative was for the most part lost in Latin from its confusion with the Dative and Ablative; and its function was performed in many instances by the Ablative, which is freely used to express the *place where*. To indicate relations of place more precisely, Prepositions (originally Adverbs) gradually became necessary. These by degrees rendered the case-endings useless, and so have finally superseded them in all modern languages derived from Latin. But in Latin a very large and various body of relations was still expressed by cases; though in many expressions forms with or without a preposition occur, showing the transition state: compare *nitor* with or without *in*, and the ablative of separation with or without *ab* or *ex*.

The names of the oblique cases, except the Ablative, are of Greek origin. The name Genitive — Gr. γενική [πρώσις], from γένος — refers, originally, to the *class* to which anything belongs. The Dative — δοτική — is the case of *giving*. The name Accusative is a mistranslation of αἰτιατική, signifying that which is *effected* or *caused* (αἰτία). The original name for Nominative (*naming*) was ὀρθή, signifying *erect*; for Vocative, κλητική (*calling*). The name Ablative means *taking from*.

## GENITIVE.

NOTE. — The Genitive is the regular case to express the relation of one noun to another ; and hence is sometimes called the *adjective* case, to distinguish it from the Dative and Ablative, which may be called *adverbial* cases (compare Remark under 217). Its uses may be classified as follows : —

1. SUBJECTIVE : {
  1. of Possession.
  2. of Source or Material.
  3. of Quality (with Adjectives).
2. PARTITIVE : of the Whole, after words designating a Part.
3. OBJECTIVE : {
  1. with Nouns of action and feeling.
  2. with Adjectives {
    - Relative adjective or Verbal.
    - for Specification (later use).
  3. with Verbs {
    - of Memory, Feeling (primary object).
    - of Accusing, &c. (secondary object).

## I. — WITH NOUNS.

213. A noun used to limit or define another, and *not* meaning the same thing, is put in the genitive. This relation is most frequently expressed in English by the preposition OF : as,<sup>1</sup>

*libri Ciceronis, the books of Cicero.*

*talentum auri, a talent of gold.*

*vir summae virtutis, a man of the greatest courage.*

*pars militum, a part of the soldiers.*

*cultus deorum, worship of the gods.*

*vacatio laboris, a respite of toil.*

*victor omnium gentium, conqueror of all nations.*

REMARK. — The phrase *amor patris, love of a father*, may mean *love felt by a father* (subjective genitive), or *love towards a father* (objective genitive). For the former the adjective *patrius* would be commonly used : compare *a father's love* and *love of a father*.

## Subjective Genitive.

214. The Genitive is used with a noun to denote the Author, Owner, Source, Material, and (modified by adjectives) Measure or Quality.

<sup>1</sup> The genitive seems originally to have meant *that from which something springs* (origin or source); hence, *that to which it belongs*. From this signification most of the others may be deduced.

a. For the genitive of Possession a possessive adjective is often used, — regularly for that of the personal pronouns (190): as  
*liber meus, my book.*

*aliena pericula, other men's dangers.*

*Sullana tempora, the times of Sylla.*

b. The noun limited is understood in a few expressions: as,

*Castoris [aedes], the [temple] of Castor.*

*Hectoris Andromache, Hector's [wife] Andromache.*

c. The genitive is often in the Predicate, connected with its noun by a copulative verb: as,

*haec domus est patris mei, this house is my father's.*

*tutela nostrae [eos] duximus (Liv.), we held them [to be] in our protection.*

*lucri facere, to get the benefit of.*

*jam me Pompeii totum esse scis (Fam. ii. 13), you know I am now all for Pompey.*

REMARK. — These genitives bear the same relation to those in 213 that the noun in predicate agreement bears to the appositive (185).

d. An infinitive or a clause, used as a noun, is often limited by the genitive of adjectives or nouns, or takes a possessive in agreement: as,

*neque sui iudicii [erat] decernere (B. C. i. 35), it was not for his judgment to decide.*

*cujusvis hominis est errare (Cic.), it is any man's [liability] to err.*

*mentiri non est meum, it is not for me to lie.*

*humanum [for hominis] est errare, it is man's nature to err.*

*negavit moris esse Graecorum, ut in convivio virorum accumberent mulieres (Verr. ii. 28), he said it was not the custom of the Greeks for women to recline [as guests] at the banquets of men.*

*timidi est optare necem (Ov. M. iv. 15), it is for the coward to wish for death.*

REMARK. — The genitive of an adjective (especially of the third declension) is thus used to express the same general idea as the neuter nominative: as,

*stulti erat sperare, suadere impudentis (Phil. ii. 10), it was (would have been) folly to hope, effrontery to urge.*

*sapientis [not sapiens] est pauca loqui, it is wise [the part of a wise man] to say little.*

e. A genitive may denote the SUBSTANCE or MATERIAL of which a thing consists (compare 216, 244): as,

*talentum auri, a talent of gold.*

*flumina lactis, rivers of milk.*



f. A limiting genitive is sometimes used instead of a noun in apposition: as,

*nomen insaniae, the word madness.*

*oppidum Antiochiae, the city of Antioch.*

g. The genitive is often used with the ablatives *causā, gratiā, for the sake of; ergo, because of;* and the indeclinable *instar, like;* also with *pridie, the day before; postridie, the day after; tennus, as far as.*

#### Genitive of Quality.

215. The genitive is used to denote QUALITY, but only when the quality is modified by an adjective (usually an indefinite one): as,

*vir summae virtutis, a man of the highest courage.*

*magnae est deliberationis, it is an affair of great deliberation.*

*magni formicae laboris, the ant, [a creature] of great toil.*

NOTE. — Compare Ablative of Quality (p. 174). In expressions of Quality, the genitive and ablative may often be used indifferently: as, *praestanti prudentia virum, maximi animi hominem* (Cic.). But, in general the genitive is thus used rather of *essential*, the ablative of *special or incidental* characteristics or conditions.

a. The genitive of quality is found in the adjective phrases *ejus modi, cujus modi* (equivalent to *tālis, such, quālis, of what sort*).

b. The genitive (of quality), with numerals, is used to define measures of *length, depth, &c.*: as,

*fossa trium pedum, a trench of three feet [depth].*

*murus sedecim pedum, a wall sixteen feet [high].*

c. Certain genitives of Quantity — as *magni, parvi, nihili, pluris, minoris* — are used to express indefinite Value (see Ablative of Price, 252).

#### Partitive Genitive.

216. Words denoting a Part are followed by the genitive of the Whole to which the part belongs.

a. Partitive words, followed by the genitive, are —

1. Nouns or Pronouns: as,

*pars militum, part of the soldiers.*

*quis nostrum, which of us?* (compare *e*, below).

*nihil erat reliqui, there was nothing left.*

2. Numerals, Comparatives, and Superlatives : as,

alter consulum, *one of the [two] consuls.*

unus tribunorum, *one of the tribunes.*

plurimum totius Galliae equitatu valet (B. G. v. 4), *is strongest in cavalry of all Gaul.*

3. Neuter adjectives and pronouns used as nouns : as,

tantum spatii, *so much space.*

aliquid nummorum, *a few pence.*

id loci (or locorum), *that spot of ground.*

id temporis, *at that time.*

plana urbis, *the level parts of the town.*

quid novi? *what news?*

REMARK. — Of adjectives of the *third declension* the genitive is rarely used in this way. Thus —

nihil novi (gen.), *nothing new* ; but

nihil memorabile (nom.), *nothing worth mention.*

4. Adverbs, especially of Quantity and Place : as,

satis pecuniae, *money enough.*

parum otii, *not much ease.*

inde loci, *next in order.*

tum temporis, *at that point of time.*

eo miseriarum (Sall.), *to that pitch of misery.*

b. The poets and later writers often use the partitive genitive after adjectives, instead of a noun in its proper case : as,

sequimur te sancte deorum (Æn. iv. 578), *we follow thee, O holy deity.*

nigrae lanarum (Plin. H. N. viii. 48), *black wools.*

electi juvenum (Liv. xxx. 9), *chosen youths.*

cunctos hominum (Ov.), *all men* (but compare c).

c. Cardinal numbers regularly — also *quidam* more commonly, and other words rarely — take the ablative with *e* (*ex*) or *de*, instead of the genitive : as,

unus ex tribunis, *one of the tribunes.*

minimus ex illis (Jug. 11), *the youngest of them.*

medius ex tribus (ib.), *the middle one of the three.*

d. With nouns *uterque* generally agrees as an adjective ; but with pronouns it always takes a genitive : as,

uterque consul, *both the consuls.*

uterque nostrum, *both of us.*

e. Numbers and words of quantity including the *whole* of any thing, or when no others are thought of, take a case in agreement, and not the partitive genitive: as,

nos omnes, *all of us.*

quot sunt hostes, *how many of the enemy are there?* [many.

cave inimicos qui multi sunt, *beware of your enemies of whom you have multi milites, many of the soldiers.*

nemo Romanus, *not one Roman.*

#### Objective Genitive.

217. Nouns of Action, Agency, and Feeling, govern the genitive of the object:<sup>1</sup> as,

desiderium otii, *longing for rest.*

vacatio muneris, *relief from duty.*

gratia beneficii, *gratitude for kindness.*

fuga malorum, *refuge from disaster.*

laudator temporis acti, *a praiser of the past.*

precatio deorum, *prayer to the gods.*

dolor capitis, *pain in the head.*

contentio honorum, *struggle for office.*

opinio virtutis, *reputation for valor.*

REMARK. — One noun limiting another is regularly used in the genitive, and not with a preposition, — prepositions being originally *adverbs*, and requiring a verb. Sometimes, however, one noun has another connected with it by a preposition. This happens with nouns of *action*, *feeling*, and *motion*; and in some relations of place to or *in which* or *from which* (including *origin*), *accompaniment*, &c. (compare 227. d): as,

odium in Caesarem (or odium Caesaris), *hate of Cæsar.*

merita erga me (Cic.), *services to me.*

auxilium adversus inimicos (id.), *help against enemies.*

reditus in caelum (id.), *return to heaven.*

impetus in me (id.), *attack on me.*

excessus e vita (id.), *departure from life.*

a. Occasionally possessive adjectives are used for the genitive of the Object: as,

externus timor, *dread of the stranger* (see 197. a).

b. The objective genitive is rarely used with a noun limited by another genitive: as,

animi multarum rerum percursio (Tusc. iv. 13), *the mind's traversing of many things.*

<sup>1</sup> This is an extension of the idea of *belonging to*; as in the phrase **odium Caesaris**, *hate of Cæsar*, the hate in a passive sense *belongs* to Cæsar, though in its active sense he is the *object* of it.

## II. — WITH ADJECTIVES.

**218.** Adjectives requiring an object of reference (*adjectiva relativa*) govern the genitive.

*a.* Adjectives denoting Desire, Knowledge, Memory, Fulness, Power, Sharing, Guilt, and their opposites, are followed by the genitive : as,

avidus laudis, *greedy of praise.*

fastidiosus literarum, *disdaining letters.*

juris (jure) peritus, *skilled in law.*

sui oblitus, *forgetful of himself.*

rationis et orationis expertes (Off. i. 16), *devoid of reason and speech.*

*b.* Verbals in *ax* ; also Participles in *ns* when used to denote a *disposition* and not a particular act, so that they become adjectives, take the genitive : as,

justum et tenacem propositi virum (Hor. Od. iii. 3), *a man just and steadfast to his purpose.*

si quem tui amantiorem cognovisti (Q. Fr. ix. 1), *if you have become acquainted with any one more fond of you.*

multitudo insolens belli (B. C. ii. 36), *a crowd unused to war.*

sitiens sanguinis, *thirsting for blood.* But,

Tiberius sitiens sanguinem (Tac.), *Tiberius [then] thirsting for blood.*

REMARK. — With the accusative, participles in *ns* are participles “referring to an act ;” with a genitive, they are adjectives “referring to the fact.”

*c.* Some other adjectives of quality or agency often take the genitive ; and the poets and late writers use almost any adjective with a genitive of *specification* : as,

callidus rei militaris (Tac. H. ii. 31), *skilled in soldiership.*

pauper aquarum (Hor.), *scant of water.*

notus animi, *famed for spirit.*

fessi rerum (Virg.), *weary of toil.*

integer vitae scelerisque purus (Hor.), *upright in life, and pure of guilt.*

REMARK. — *Animi* (strictly a locative, plural *animis*) is added to adjectives of *feeling* : as,

aeger animi, *sick at heart.*

confusus animi, *disturbed in spirit.*

*d.* A few adjectives of Likeness, Nearness, Belonging — ordinarily requiring the dative — take the possessive genitive, especially when used as nouns ; these are, *aequālis*, *affinis*, *communis*, *finitimus*, *par*, *propinquus*, *proprius* (regularly), *similis*, *victus*.

## III.—WITH VERBS.

## Verbs of Memory.

219. Verbs of Remembering, Forgetting, and Reminding, take the genitive of the object when they are used of a *continued state of mind*, but the accusative when used of a *single act*: as,

pueritiae memoriam recordari (Arch.), *to recall the memory of childhood*.  
 animus meminit praeteritorum (Div. i. 30), *the soul remembers the past*.  
 venit mihi in mentem illius diei, *I bethought me of that day*.  
 obliviscere caedis atque incendiorum (Cat. i. 3), *turn your mind from slaughter and conflagrations*.  
 totam causam oblitus est (Brut. 60), *he forgot the whole case*.

REMARK.—The above distinction is unimportant as to verbs of Reminding, which take the genitive except of neuter pronouns: as, *hoc te admoneo*. The accusative is always used of a person or thing remembered by an eye-witness. *Recordor* is almost always construed with an Accusative, or with a phrase or clause.

## Charge and Penalty.

220. Verbs of Accusing, Condemning, and Acquitting, take the genitive of the *charge* or *penalty*: as,

arguit me furti, *he accuses me of theft*.  
 peculatūs damnatus (pecuniae publicae damnatus) (Flac. 18), *condemned for embezzlement*.  
 video non te absolutum esse improbitatis sed illos damnatos esse caedis (Verr. ii. 28), *I see not that you were acquitted of outrage, but that they were condemned for homicide*.

a. Peculiar genitives, under this construction, are—

capitis (damnare capitis, *to sentence to death*);  
 majestatis [laesae], *treason* (crime against the dignity of the State);  
 repetundarum, *extortion* (lit. of an action for *claiming back* money wrongfully taken);  
 voti (damnatus or reus voti, *bound to the payment of one's vow*; i.e. *successful in one's effort*).

b. The crime may be expressed by the ablative with *de*; the punishment by the ablative alone: <sup>1</sup> as,

de vi et majestatis damnati (Phil. i), *convicted of assault and treason*.  
 vitia autem hominum atque fraudes damnis, ignominiis, vinculis, verberibus, exsiliis, morte damnantur (De Or. i. 43), *but the vices and crimes of men are punished with fines, dishonor, chains, scourging, exile, death*.

<sup>1</sup> But, *inter sicarios accusare* or *defendere*.

## Verbs of Feeling.

**221.** Many verbs of Emotion take the genitive of the object which excites the feeling. Thus —

*a.* Verbs of Pity, as *miserere* and *miseresco*, are followed by the genitive: as,

*miserescite regis* (Æn. viii. 573), *pity the king.*

*miserere animi non digna ferentis* (id. ii. 144), *pity a soul that endures unworthy things.*

But *miseror*, *commiseror*, *bewail*, take the Accusative.

*b.* The impersonals *miseret*, *paenitet*, *piget*, *pudet*, *taedet* (or *pertaesum est*), take the genitive of the object with the accusative of the person affected: as,

*hos homines infamiae suae neque pudet neque taedet* (Verr. i. 12), *these men are neither ashamed nor weary of their dishonor.*

*c.* An Infinitive, a Clause, or an accusative of a neuter pronoun may be used with these impersonal verbs instead of the genitive of a noun: as,

*me paenitet haec fecisse*, *I repent of having done this.*

*nihil quod paenitere possit* (Cic.), *nothing that may cause repentance.*

*d.* Sometimes they are used personally: as,

*nonne te haec pudet* (Ter. Ad.), *do not these things shame you?*

**222.** The impersonals *interest* and *refert* take the genitive of the person (rarely the thing) affected, — the subject of the verb being a neuter pronoun or a substantive clause: as,

*Clodii intererat Milonem perire* (Mil. 21), *it was the interest of Clodius that Milo should die.*

REMARK. — The use of the genitive with *interest* is probably to be referred to its predicate use (214. *d*).

*a.* Instead of the genitive of a personal pronoun the corresponding possessive is used in the ablative singular feminine after *interest* or *refert*:<sup>1</sup> as,

*quid tuā id refert?* — *magni* (Ter. Ph.), *how does that concern you?*  
*much.*

*vehementer intererat vestrā qui patres estis* (Plin.), *it would be very much to your advantage, you who are fathers.*

<sup>1</sup> *Refert* is seldom used in any other way; but it takes rarely the dative (of Reference), as in Hor. Sat. i. 1, 49: *quid referat intra naturae fines viventi.*

*b.* The accusative with *ad* is used to express the Thing with reference to which one is interested : as,

*magni ad honorem nostrum interest* (Fam. xvi. 1), *it is of great consequence to our honor.*

**223.** Some verbs of Plenty and Want govern the genitive (rarely, except *egeo, indigeo, satago*) : as,

*quid est quod defensionis indigeat?* (Rosc. Am. 12), *what is there that needs defence?*

*satagit rerum suarum*, *he has his hands full with his own affairs.*

*a.* The genitive sometimes follows *potior*, *get possession of*; as always in the phrase *potiri rerum*, *to be master of affairs.*

*b.* Verbs of plenty and want more commonly take the Ablative (see 243, 248. *c.*).

#### DATIVE.

**224.** The Dative is used of the object *indirectly affected* by an action. This object is usually denoted in English by *TO* or *FOR* : as,

*dat librum puero*, *he gives a book to the boy.*

*cedite tempori*, *yield to the occasion.*

*provincia Ciceroni obtigit*, *the province fell by lot to Cicero.*

*inimicis non credimus*, *we do not trust [to] our enemies.*

*civitatis saluti consulite*, *consult for the safety of the State.*

*sic mihi videtur*, *so it seems to me.*

*utile rei publicae*, *useful to the State.*

*naturae contrarium*, *opposite to nature.*

NOTE. — The dative seems to have the primary meaning of *TOWARDS*, and to be closely akin to the *Locative*. But this meaning is lost in Latin, except in some adverbial forms (*eo, illo, &c.*) and in the poets. In most of its derived meanings, it denotes an object not merely (like the Accusative) as *passively affected* by the action, or *caused* by it; but as *reciprocally sharing* in the action, or *receiving it actively*. Thus, in *dedit mihi librum*, *he gave me a book*, or *fecit mihi injuriam*, *he did me an injury*; it is I that *receive* the book or *feel* the wrong. Hence persons, or objects personified, are most likely to be in the dative.<sup>1</sup>

As this difference between the accusative and dative (direct and indirect object) depends on the view taken by the writer, verbs of similar

<sup>1</sup> So in the Spanish, the dative is used whenever a Person is the object of an action: as, *yo veo al hombre*, *I see the man.*

meaning in different languages, or even in the same, differ in the case of the object. In English, especially, owing to the loss of its cases, many verbs are construed as transitive, which in Latin require the dative. Thus *believe*, which in English originally governed the genitive, has become transitive; while the corresponding verb in Latin, *credo* (a compound of *cred* and *do*, *to place confidence in*) takes the dative.

**The uses of the Dative are the following : —**

1. As INDIRECT OBJECT (general use): { a. with Transitives.  
b. with Intransitives.
2. Special or Idiomatic Uses : { a. of Possession (with *esse*).  
b. of Agency (with Gerund).  
c. of Service (predicate use).  
d. of Fitness, &c. (with Adjectives)  
e. of Reference (*dativus commodi*).

### With Transitives.

**225.** The Dative of the Indirect object may be used with any transitive verb whose meaning permits it, along with the accusative of the Direct: as,

do tibi librum, *I give you a book.*

illud tibi affirmo (Fam. i. 7), *this I assure you.*

commendo tibi ejus omnia negotia (Fam. i. 1), *I put all his affairs in your hands.*

dabis profecto misericordiae quod iracundiae negavisti (id. 14), *you will surely grant to mercy what you refused to wrath.*

*a.* Many verbs may be either transitive or intransitive, and have the accusative with the dative, or the dative alone : as,

**hanc pecuniam tibi credo, *I trust this money to you.***

in hac re tibi credo, *I trust you in this affair.*

*b.* When the idea of *motion* is distinctly conveyed, a preposition with its case is used, but the dative occurs in poetry : as,

has litteras ad te mitto, *I send you this letter.*

it clamor caelo (*Æn.* v. 451), *a shout goes to the sky.*

c. Many verbs usually found with a dative of the *person* may also take an accusative of the *thing* (see 227): as,

cui cum rex crucem minitaretur (Tusc. i. 43), *when the king threatened him with the cross.*

imperat oppidanis decem talenta, *he exacts of the townspeople ten talents.*

omnia sibi ignoscere (Vell. ii. 30), to pardon one's self every thing.

**Crasso divitias non invidéo, *I do not envy Crassus his wealth.***



d. Certain verbs capable of two different senses<sup>1</sup> may take either the dative of a person and the accusative of a thing, or the accusative of a person and the ablative of a thing: as,

donat coronas suis, *he presents wreaths to his men*; or,

donat suos coronis, *he presents his men with wreaths.*

pomis se induit arbos (G. iv. 143), *the tree decks itself with fruits.*

copiis (dat.) armis exutis (B. G. iii. 6), *the forces being stripped of arms.*

aram sanguine adspargere (N. D. iii. 36), *to sprinkle the altar with blood.*

e. Verbs which in the active voice take the accusative and dative retain the dative when used in the passive: as,

haec nobis nuntiantur, *these things are told us.*

Crasso divitiae non invidentur, *Crassus is not envied for his wealth.*

decem talenta oppidanis imperantur, *ten talents are exacted of the townspeople.*

#### With Intransitives.

**226.** Intransitive verbs take the dative of the Indirect object only: as,

cedant arma togae (Phil. i. 8), *let arms give place to the gown.*

Caesari respondet, *he replies to Caesar.*

Caesari respondetur, *Caesar is replied to* (see 230).

credimus nuntio, *we believe the messenger.*

nuntio creditur, *the messenger is believed.*

respondi maximis criminibus (Phil. i. 14), *I have answered the heaviest charges.*

ut ita cuique eveniat (id. 46), *that it may so turn out to each.*

a. The dative is used as the object of reference of many phrases consisting of a noun with a copulative verb (compare 235): as,

auctor esse alicui, *to advise or instigate one.*

quis huic rei testis est (Quinc. 11), *who testifies to this fact?*

is finis populationibus fuit (Liv. ii. 30), *this put an end to the raids.*

b. The dative is sometimes used without a copulative verb in a sense approaching the genitive (compare 227. d, 235. a): as,

legatus Caesar, *a lieutenant to Caesar* (i.e., a man sent as a lieutenant to Caesar).

heres fratri suo, *his brother's heir.*

ministri sceleribus, *agents of crime.*

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<sup>1</sup> These are *dono*, *impertio*, *induo*, *exuo*, *adspargo*, *inspergo*, *circumdo*, *circumfundo*, *prohibeo*, *intercludo*, *interdico* (dat. with acc. or abl.).

**227.** Most verbs signifying to *favor, help, please, trust*, and their contraries; also, to *believe, persuade, command, obey, serve, resist, envy, threaten, pardon, and spare*,<sup>1</sup> take the Dative: as,

cur mihi invides, *why do you envy me?*

mihi parcit atque ignoscit, *he spares and pardons me.*

ignosce patrio dolori (Liv. iii. 48), *pity a father's grief.*

sontibus opitulari poteram (Fam. iv. 13), *I was able to help the guilty.*

non omnibus servio (id. xvi. 13), *I am not a servant to every man.*

cum ceteris tum mihi ipsi displiceo (id. iv. 13), *I dissatisfy other people and myself too.*

non parcam operae (id. xvi. 13), *I will spare no pains.*

sic mihi persuasi (Cat. M. 21), *so I have persuaded myself.*

huic legioni Caesar confidebat maxime (B. G. i. 40), *this legion Caesar especially trusted.*

NOTE.—Several classes of verbs in this list (as to *favor, envy, serve, &c.*) seem to be transitive. In fact, however, the Latin retains a primary meaning which is not found in the English: as, *invidere*, to *envy*, is to look [askance] at one; *servire*, is to be a slave; *suadere*, is to make [a thing] pleasant to any one (compare *suavis*, sweet).

a. Some verbs apparently of the same meanings—as, *juvo, adjuvo, help, laedo, injure; jubeo, order; deficio, fail*—take the accusative, indicating a more direct relation or effect. Thus—*multa oculis nocent*, many things are injurious to the eyes; but, *hic pulvis oculum meum laedit*, this dust hurts my eye.

b. Some verbs take the dative or accusative indifferently: as, *adūlor, aemulor, comitor, despĕro, praestōlor, medeor, medicor.*

c. Some verbs take the dative or accusative according to their signification: <sup>2</sup> as,

parti civium consulunt (Off. i. 25), *they consult for a party of the citizens.*

cum te consulissem (Fam. xi. 29), *when I had consulted you.*

metuens pueris (Plaut. Am. v. 1), *anxious for the boys.*

nec metuunt deos (Ter. Hec. v. 2), *they fear not even the gods* [so also *timeo*].

prospicite patriae (Cat. iv. 2), *have regard for the State.*

prospicere sedem senectuti (Liv. iv. 49), *to provide a habitation for old age* [so also *providere*].

<sup>1</sup> These include, among others, the following: *adversor, credo, faveo, fido, ignosco, impero, invideo, irascor, suscenseo, resisto, noceo, parco, pareo, placeo, servio, studeo, suadeo (persuadeo), tempero (obtempero), dicto audiens sum.*

<sup>2</sup> See Lexicon under *convenio, cupio, fido (abl.), insisto, maneo, praeverto, rectipio, renuntio, salvo, succedo, caveo.*

d. Some verbal nouns — as *insidiae*, *ambush*, *invidia*, *envy* — take the dative like the verbs whence they are derived: as,

*invidia consuli* (Sall.), *ill-will against the consul*.

*obtemperatio legibus* (Leg. i. 15), *obedience to the laws*.

*sibi ipsi responsio* (De Or. iii. 54), *an answer to himself*.

e. The dative is used after the Impersonals *libet*, *licet*; after verbs compounded with *satis*, *bene*, and *male*; together with the following: *gratificor*, *gratulor*, *haereo* (rarely), *nubo*, *permitto*, *plaudo*, *probo*, *studeo*, *supplico*, *excello*: as,

*optimo viro maledicere* (Dej. 10), *to slander an excellent man*.

*quod mihi maxime lubet* (Fam. i. 18), *what most pleases me* (see 12. c).

*mihi ipsi nunquam satisfacio* (id. 17), *I never satisfy myself*.

*pulcrum est benefacere rei publicae* (Sall. C. 3), *it is a noble thing to benefit the commonwealth*.

*haerentem capiti coronam* (Hor. S. i. 10), *a wreath clinging to the head*.

*Pompeio se gratificari putant* (id. i. 1), *they suppose they are doing Pompey a service*.

*tibi permitto respondere* (N. D. iii. 1), *I give you leave to answer*.

#### With Compounds.

228. Most verbs compounded with *ad*, *ante*, *con*, *in*, *inter*, *ob*, *post*, *prae*, *pro*, *sub*, *super*, and some with *circum*, are followed by the dative of Indirect Object:<sup>1</sup> as,

*neque enim adsentior iis* (Lael. 3), *for I do not agree with them*.

*tempestati obsequi artis est* (Fam. i. 9), *it is a point of skill to yield to the weather*.

*omnibus negotiis non interfuit solum sed praefuit* (id. i. 6), *he not only had a hand in all matters, but took the lead in them*.

*quantum natura hominis pecudibus antecedit* (Off. i. 30), *so far as man's nature is superior to brutes*.

*nec unquam succumbet inimicis* (Dej. 13), *he will never bend before his foes*.

*illis libellis nomen suum inscribunt* (Arch. 13), *they put their own name to those papers*.

*cur mihi te offers, ac meis commodis officiis et obstas* (Ros. Am. 38), *why do you offer yourself to me, and then hinder and withstand my advantage?*

REMARK. — When a verb with a *preposition* in English is represented by one of these compounds, it is commonly followed by the Dative, as in the above examples. If, however, the compound represents a verb qualified by an *adverb*, it retains its original construction: as, *convocat suos* (see also 237. d).

<sup>1</sup> Many take also the Accusative, being originally transitive.

*a.* Some compounds of *ad*, *ante*, *ob*, with a few others, acquire a transitive meaning, and take the accusative : <sup>1</sup> as,

*nos oppugnat* (Fam. i. 1), *he opposes us.*

*quis audeat bene comitatum aggredi*, *who would dare encounter a man well attended ?*

*munus obire* (Lael. 2), *to attend to a duty.*

*b.* The adjective *obvius* — also the adverb *obviam* — with a verb takes the dative : as,

*si ille obvius ei futurus non erat* (Mil. 18), *if he was not intending to get in his way.*

*mihi obviam venisti* (Fam. ii. 16), *you came to meet me.*

229. Many verbs of taking away and the like take the dative (especially of *persons*) instead of the ablative of separation : <sup>2</sup> as,

*mulieri anulum detraxit*, *he took a ring from the woman.*

*bona mihi abstulisti*, *you have robbed me of my gains.*

*vitam adolescentibus vis aufert* (C. M. 19), *violence deprives young men of life.*

*nihil enim tibi detraxit senectus* (id. 1), *for age has robbed you of nothing.*

*nec mihi hunc errorem extorqueri volo* (id. 23), *nor do I wish this error wrested from me.*

*a.* The distinct idea of *place*, — and, in general, names of *things*, — require the ablative with a preposition : as,

*illum ex periculo eripuit* (B. G. iv. 12), *he dragged him out of danger.*

*b.* Sometimes the dative of a person and the ablative with a preposition are used in the same construction : as,

*victoriam eripi sibi e manibus*, *that victory should be wrested from his hands* (compare 243. *b*).

*c.* The dative is often used by the poets in constructions which would strictly require another case with a preposition : as,

*differt sermoni* (Hor. S. i. 4, 48), *differs from prose* [a sermone].

*tibi certet* (Ecl. v. 8), *may vie with you* [tecum].

*lateri abdidit ensem* (Æn. ii. 553), *buried the sword in his side* [in latere].

*solstitium pecori defendite* (Ecl. vii. 47), *keep the noontide from the flock* [a pecore].

NOTE.—The poets regard the action as done *to* the thing affected, for greater vividness of expression.

<sup>1</sup> Such verbs are *aggredior*, *adeo*, *antecedo*, *anteo*, *antegredior*, *convenio*, *inco*, *obeo*, *offendo*, *oppugno*, *subeo*.

<sup>2</sup> The action is here more vividly represented as done *to* the object affected by it.

**230.** Verbs governing the dative can be used in the Passive only *impersonally*: as,

cui parci potuit (Liv. xxi. 12), *who could be spared?*

non modo non invidetur illi aetati verum etiam favetur (Off. ii. 13),  
*that age [youth] is not only not envied, but is even favored.*

tempori serviendum est (Fam. ix. 7), *we must serve the time.*

#### Dative of Possession.

**231.** The dative is used with *esse* and similar words to denote possession or other special relation: as,

homini cum deo similitudo est (Cic.), *man has a likeness to God.*

quibus opes nullae sunt (Sall.), [those] *who have no wealth.*

est mihi domi pater (Virg.), *I have a father at home.*

REMARK. — The Genitive or a possessive with *esse* emphasizes the *possessor*; the Dative, the fact of *possession*: as, *liber est meus*, *the book is mine* (and no one's else); *est mihi liber*, *I have a book* (among other things). This is the usual form to denote simple *possession*; *habeo*, *I have*, generally signifying *hold*, often with some secondary meaning: as,

legionem quam secum habebat (B. G. i. 8), *the legion which he kept with him.*

domitas habere libidines (De Or.), *to keep the passions under control.*

a. Compounds of *esse* take the dative (excepting *abesse* and *posse*): as,

*deest mihi pecunia*, *I lack money.*

b. After *nomen est*, and similar expressions, the name is usually put in the dative by a kind of apposition with the *person*: as,

puero ab inopia Egerio inditum nomen (Liv. i. 34), *the boy was called Egerius from his poverty.*

cui Africano fuit cognomen (id. xxv. 2), *whose surname was Africanus.*

c. The name may be in apposition with *nomen*; or in the genitive: as,

cui nomen Arethusa (Verr. iv. 52), [a fount] *called Arethusa.*

nomen Mercuri est mihi (Plaut. Am.), *my name is Mercury.*

puero nomen est Marcus (Marco, Marci), *the boy's name is Marcus.*

#### Dative of Agency.

**232.** The dative is used with the Gerundive, to denote the person on whom the necessity rests: as,

haec vobis provincia est defendenda (Man. 6), *this province is for you to defend* [to be defended by you].

mihi est pugnandum, *I have to fight* [i.e., the need of fighting is mine; compare *mihi est liber*].

a. The dative of the agent is often used after *perfect participles*, especially when used in an adjective sense, — rarely after other parts of the verb : as,

mihi deliberatum et constitutum est (Rull. i. 8), *I have deliberated and resolved.*

b. By the poets and later writers it is used in this way after almost any passive verb : as,

neque cernitur ulli (Æn. i. 440), *nor is seen by any.*

felix est dicta sorori (Fast. iii.), *she was called happy by her sister.*

c. The dative of the person who sees or thinks is regularly used after the passive of *video* (usually to be rendered *seem*) : as,

videtur mihi, *it seems (or seems good) to me.*

#### Dative of Service.

233. The dative is used to denote the Purpose or End : often with another dative of the person or thing affected :<sup>1</sup> as,

rei publicae cladi sunt (Jug. 85), *they are ruin to the State.*

magno usui nostris fuit (B. G. iv. 25), *it was of great service to our men.*

tertiam aciem nostris subsidio misit (id. i. 52), *he sent the third line as a relief to our men.*

omnia deerant quae ad reficiendas naves erant usui (id. iv. 29), *all things were wanting which were of use for repairing the ships.*

#### Dative with Adjectives.

234. The dative is used after Adjectives or Adverbs, to denote that to which the given quality is directed, or for which it exists.

<sup>1</sup> The following characteristics have been observed in the use of the Predicate Dative (dative of Service) : 1. the noun is semi-abstract ; 2. it is so used only in the singular ; 3. it is "used predicatively" ; 4. generally with *esse* ; 5. rarely qualified by an adjective ; 6. or by a genitive or a phrase ; 7. but few nouns are used in this way ; 8. the use and its limitations appear to be governed by custom, not by any principle. It is common with about 40 nouns, and is found with 185 in all. Of these *dono*, *muneri*, *vitio*, are not used with *esse*. The verbs with which it exists are *habeo*, *do*, *dico*, *duco*, *pono*, *verto*, with *esse* and its equivalents, as *feri*, &c. The nouns most commonly found in this construction are, *adjumento*, *auxilio*, *cordi*, *crimini*, *curae*, *damno*, *decori*, *dedecori*, *dono*, *exemplo*, *exitio*, *fraudi* (damage), *honoris*, *indicio*, *invidiae*, *impedimento*, *laudi*, *ludibrio*, *malo*, *morae*, *odio*, *oneri*, *ornamento*, *praedae*, *praesidio*, *probrio*, *pudori*, *receptui*, *remedio*, *saluti*, *subsidio*, *terrori*, *vitio*, *voluptati*, *usui*. — Roby's Latin Grammar, ii. xxxvii. seq.

a. The dative is used with words of Fitness, Nearness, Likeness, Service, Inclination, and their opposites ; also, in poetic and colloquial use, with *idem* : as,

*nihil est tam naturae aptum* (Lael. 5), *nothing is so fitted to nature.*

*nihil difficile amanti puto* (Or. 10), *I think nothing hard to a lover.*

*pompae quam pugnae aptius* (id. 13), *fitter for a procession than for battle.*

*rebus ipsis par et aequalis oratio* (id. 36), *a speech equal and level with the subject.*

*in eadem arma nobis* (Cic.), *to the same arms with us.*

b. Adjectives of Fitness or Use take oftener the accusative with *ad* to denote the end ; but regularly the dative of persons : as,

*nobis utile est ad hanc rem*, *it is of use to us for this thing.*

*aptus ad rem militarem*, *fit for a soldier's duty.*

*locus ad insidias aptior* (Mil. 20), *a place fitter for lying in wait.*

*castris idoneum locum deligit* (B. G. i. 49), *he selects a suitable camping-ground.*

c. Adjectives and nouns of Inclination may take the accusative with *in* or *erga* : as,

*comis in uxorem* (Hor. Ep. ii. 2), *kind to his wife.*

*divina bonitas erga homines* (N. D. ii. 23), *the divine goodness towards men.*

d. Many adjectives especially when used as nouns may take also the possessive genitive.<sup>1</sup>

REMARK. — After *similis*, *like*, with early writers, the genitive is more usual ; Cicero uses the genitive of *living objects*, and the genitive or dative of *things*.

e. The adjectives *propior*, *proximus* (sometimes), and the adverbs *propius*, *proxime* (more commonly), take the accusative, as if prepositions, like *prope* (see 91).

#### Dative of Reference.

235. The dative is often required not by any particular word, but by the general meaning of the sentence (*dativus commodi et incommodi*) : as,

*tibi aras* (Pl. Merc. i. 1), *you plough for yourself.*

*res tuas tibi habe* (formula of divorce), *keep your goods to yourself.*

*laudavit mihi fratrem*, *he praised my brother* [out of regard for me ; *laudavit fratrem meum* would imply no such motive].

<sup>1</sup> Such are *aequalis*, *affinis*, *amicus*, *cognatus*, *communis*, *consanguineus*, *dispar*, *familiaris*, *inimicus*, *necessarius*, *par*, *peculiaris*, *proprius*, *similis*, *superstes* (compare 188, 218. d).

**REMARK.**—In these cases there may be only one word in the sentence; but they are distinguished by the fact that the meaning of the verb is complete without the dative,—which denotes that *to* or *for* which any thing is done,—while in the preceding uses it is more closely connected with some particular word.

*a.* The dative of reference is often used to qualify a whole idea, instead of the possessive genitive modifying a single word: as,

iter Poenis vel corporibus suis obstruere (Cat. M. 20), *to block the march of the Carthaginians even with their own bodies.*

se in conspectum nautis dedit (Verr. vi. 53), *he put himself in sight of the sailors.*

versatur mihi ante oculos (id. 47,) *it comes before my eyes.*

*b.* The dative of reference is used, in relations of Direction answering to the English *as you go in* (on the right, in the front, &c.): as,

oppidum primum Thessaliae venientibus ab Epiro (B. C. iii. 80), *the first town of Thessaly as you come from Epirus.*

laeva parte sinum intrantibus (Liv. xxxvi. 26), *on the left as you sail up the gulf.*

*c.* The dative of reference is used, rarely (by a Greek idiom), with the participle of *volo* or *nolo*, and similar words: as,

ut quibusque bellum invitis aut volentibus erat (Tac. Ann. i. 59), *as each might receive the war reluctantly or gladly.*

ut militibus labos volentibus esset (Jug. 100), *that the soldiers might assume the task willingly.*

#### Ethical Dative.

**236.** The dative of the personal pronouns is used to show a certain interest felt by the person referred to<sup>1</sup> (*dativus ethicus*): as,

quid mihi Celsus agit (Hor.), *pray what is Celsus doing?*

suo sibi servit patri (Pl. Capt. Prol.), *he serves his own father.*

at tibi repente venit mihi Cominius (Fam. ix. 2), *but, look you, of a sudden comes to me Cominius.*

hem tibi talentum argenti (Pl. Trin. v. 1), *hark ye, a talent of silver.*

quid tibi vis? *what would you have?*

**REMARK.**—To express *FOR*—meaning *instead of*, *in defence of*, *in behalf of*—the ablative with *pro* must be used: as,

pro patria mori (Hor. Od. iii. 2), *to die for one's country.*

pro rege, lege, grege (prov.), *for king, law, people.*

ego ibo pro te (Pl. Most.), *I will go instead of you.*

<sup>1</sup> Compare "I'll rhyme you so eight years together."—*As You Like It.*



## ACCUSATIVE.

**237.** The Accusative is the case of the Direct Object of a transitive verb. It denotes (*a*) that which is directly *affected*, or (*b*) that which is *caused* or *produced* by the action of the verb : as,

**Brutus Caesarem interfecit, Brutus killed Caesar.**

**aedem facere, to make a temple.**

**proelium pugnare, to fight a battle.**

The special uses of the Accusative are the following : —

- |                       |   |   |   |                     |
|-----------------------|---|---|---|---------------------|
| 1. PRIMARY OBJECT :   | { | <i>a.</i> Directly affected by the Action.            | { | Thing produced.     |
|                       |   | <i>b.</i> Effect of the Action                        |   | Cognate Accusative. |
| 2. SECONDARY OBJECT : | { | <i>a.</i> Predicate Accusative (of Naming, &c.).      | { |                     |
|                       |   | <i>b.</i> of Asking or Teaching (the Thing).          |   |                     |
|                       |   | <i>c.</i> of Concealing (the Person).                 |   |                     |
| 3. IDIOMATIC USES :   | { | <i>a.</i> Adverbial.                                  | { |                     |
|                       |   | <i>b.</i> of Specification (Greek Accusative).        |   |                     |
|                       |   | <i>c.</i> of Extent and Duration.                     |   |                     |
|                       |   | <i>d.</i> of Exclamation.                             |   |                     |
|                       |   | <i>e.</i> Subject of Infinitive (Indirect Discourse). |   |                     |

*a.* The object of a transitive verb in the active voice becomes its Subject in the passive, and is put in the nominative : as,

**Caesar a Bruto interfectus est, Caesar was killed by Brutus.**

**domus aedificatur, the house is building (being built).**

*b.* Many verbs which express Feeling, apparently intransitive, take an accusative in Latin and are used in the passive : as,

**meum casum luctumque doluerunt (Sest. 69), they grieved [at] my calamity and sorrow.**

**ridetur ab omni conventu (Hor. S. i. 7, 22), he is laughed [at] by the whole assembly.**

*c.* Verbs of taste, smell, and the like take an accusative of the quality : as,

**vinum redolens (Cic.), smelling of wine.**

**herbam mella sapiunt (Plin.), the honey tastes of grass.**

*d.* Verbs of motion, compounds of **circum** and **trans**, and a few others, frequently become transitive, and take the accusative : as,

**mortem obire, to die.**

**consulatum ineunt (Livy iii. 4), they assume the consulship.**

**neminem conveni (Fam. ix. 14), I met no one.**

**si insulam adisset (B. G. iv. 20), if he should go to the island.**

**cives qui circumstant senatum (Cat. i. 8), the citizens who throng about the senate.**

*e.* The accusative is used after the Impersonals *decet, delectat, juvat, oportet, fallit, fugit, praeterit*: as,  
te non praeterit (Fam. i. 8), *it does not escape your notice.*

[For Accusative and Genitive after Impersonals, see 221. *δ.*]

#### Cognate Accusative.

**238.** A neuter verb often takes an accusative of kindred meaning, usually modified by an adjective or in some other manner: as,

vitam tutiorem vivere (Hor.), *to live a safer life.*

aetatem tertiam vivebat, *he was living his third age.*

coire societatem, *to [go together and] form an alliance.*

*a.* The cognate accusative is found in such phrases as *vincere iudicium*, *to gain one's case at court*, and more loosely in poetic use: as,

saltare Cyclopa (Hor. Sat. v. 1), *to dance the Cyclops.*

Bacchanalia vivere (Juv. ii. 2), *to live in revels.*

*b.* The accusative is used in certain phrases *constructively*, the real object of the verb being something understood (*constructio praegnans*): as,

huic errori similem [errorem] insanire (Hor. S. ii. 3, 62), *to be mad with a like delusion.*

ferire foedus, *to strike a treaty* [i.e. to sanction by striking down the victim].

#### Two Accusatives.

**239.** Several classes of verbs, besides the direct object, take another accusative, either as a predicate or as a secondary object.

*a.* The accusative is used in a predicate after verbs of Naming, Choosing, &c. (see example under 185).

*b.* A second accusative is sometimes used after transitive verbs compounded with prepositions: as,

Hiberum copias trajecit (Liv. xxi. 23), *he threw his forces across the Ebro.*  
But with these verbs the preposition is oftener repeated.

*c.* Verbs of Asking and Teaching govern two accusatives,<sup>1</sup> one of a Person and the other of a Thing: as,

hoc vos doceo (Cic.), *I teach you this.*

hoc te vehementer rogo (id.), *this I urgently beg of you.*

<sup>1</sup> Either of these may be regarded as the direct object of the action, and may accordingly be changed to the nominative as subject of the verb in the Passive.

REMARK. — The accusative of the Thing may remain with the passive of verbs of *teaching*, also after *rogo*: as, *sententiam rogatus est*. But generally with verbs of *asking*, the Thing becomes subject-nominative, while the Person asked is put in the ablative with a preposition.

The preposition is always used with the noun designating the person after *peto*, *postulo* (ab), or *quaero* (ex, ab, de): as,

*pacem ab Romanis petere* (Cæs.), *to beg peace of the Romans*.

d. The transitive *celo*, *conceal*, and the usually neuter *lateo*, *lie hid*, take the accusative of the person: as,

*hoc me celavit*, *he hid this from me*.

*latet plerosque* (Plin.), *it is hid from most*.

#### Idiomatic Uses.

240. The Accusative has the following special idiomatic uses: —

a. A neuter pronoun or adjective is used adverbially in the accusative: <sup>1</sup> as,

*quid moror*, *why do I delay?*

*dulce loquentem* (Hor. Od. i. 22), *sweetly speaking*.

*acerba tuens* (Æn. ix. 793), *looking cruelly*.

*torvum clamat* (id. vii. 599), *he cries harshly*.

b. The accusative is found in a few adverbial phrases: as,

*id temporis*, *at that time*.

*meam vicem*, *on my part*.

*quod si*, *but (as to which) if*.

c. The so-called *synecdochical* or Greek accusative is used by the poets to denote the part affected: as,

*caput nectentur* (Virg.), *their head shall be bound* [they shall be bound about the head].

NOTE. — The part is strictly in apposition with the whole, and remains (as in the example) after the passive. Many similar expressions may be regarded as the accusative after passive verbs used *reflexively*: as,

*inutile ferrum cingitur* (Virg.), *he girds on the useless steel*.

d. The accusative is used in Exclamations: as,

*O fortunatam rempublicam* (Cic.), *O fortunate republic!*

*O me miserum!* *Ah wretched me!*

e. Duration of Time and extent of Space are expressed by the accusative (see 256, 257).

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<sup>1</sup> This usage is strictly the Cognate Accusative.

f. The subject of the Infinitive Mood is in the accusative. This is especially frequent after words of Knowing, Thinking, Telling, and Perceiving (*verba sentiendi et declarandi*).<sup>1</sup>

[For the Accusative with Prepositions, see page 101.]

### VOCATIVE.

**241.** The Vocative is the form of direct Address : as,  
*Tiberine pater, te sanote precor* (Liv. ii. 103), *O father Tiber !  
 thee, holy one, I pray.*

NOTE.—The Vocative can hardly be called a case, as it properly has no case termination, and forms no part of the sentence.

a. Sometimes the nominative of a noun is used instead of the vocative, in apposition with the subject of the Imperative : as,  
*audi tu, populus Albanus* (Liv. i. 24), *hear, thou people of Alba.*

b. Sometimes the vocative of an adjective is used instead of the nominative, where the verb is of the second person : as  
*censorem trabeate salutas* (Pers.), *robed you salute the censor.*

c. The nominative is used in exclamations : as,  
*En dextra fidesque !* (Æn. iv. 597).

### ABLATIVE.

**242.** The Ablative is used to denote the relations expressed in English by the prepositions FROM, IN, AT, WITH, BY : as,

*liberare metu*, *to deliver from fear.*

*caecus avaritiâ*, *blind with avarice.*

*occisus gladio*, *slain by the sword.*

*exultus doctrinâ*, *trained in learning.*

*hoc ipso tempore*, *at this very time.*

NOTE.—The Ablative *form* contains three distinct cases,—the Ablative proper, expressing the relation FROM ; the Locative, IN ; and the Instrumental, WITH or BY. This confusion has arisen partly from phonetic decay, by which the cases have become identical in form, and partly from the development by which they have approached one another in meaning. Compare, for the first, the like forms of the dative and ablative plural, the old dative in *e* of the fifth declension, and the

<sup>1</sup> In its origin, the accusative in this construction is strictly the Object of the leading verb.

loss of the original *d* in the ablative; and, for the second, the phrases **a parte dextra**, *ON the right*; **quam ob causam**, *FROM which cause*; **ad famam**, *AT (in consequence of) the report*.

The relation of **FROM** includes *separation, source, cause, agent, and comparison*; that of **WITH** or **BY**, *accompaniment, instrument, means, manner, quality, and price*; that of **IN** or **AT**, *place, time, circumstance*. It is probable that, originally, the idea of *accompaniment*, had a separate case, which became confounded with the Instrumental before Latin was separated from the kindred tongues. The following are the uses of the Latin Ablative, classed according to the original cases which have been combined in it:—

- |                                    |   |  |
|------------------------------------|---|--|
| 1. ABLATIVE ( <i>from</i> ):       | { | a. of Separation, Privation, and Want.<br>b. of Source (participles of origin, &c.)<br>c. of Cause ( <i>gaudeo, dignus, &amp;c.</i> ).<br>d. of Agent (with <i>ab</i> after Passives).<br>e. of Comparison ( <i>THAN</i> ).                          |
| 2. INSTRUMENTAL ( <i>with</i> ):   | { | a. of Means and Instrument.<br>b. of Accompaniment (with <i>cum</i> ).<br>c. of Object of the Deponents <i>utor, &amp;c.</i><br>d. of Degree of Difference.<br>e. of Quality (with Adjectives).<br>f. of Price and Exchange.<br>g. of Specification. |
| 3. LOCATIVE ( <i>in, on, at</i> ): | { | a. of Place <i>where</i> (commonly with <i>in</i> ).<br>b. of Idiomatic Expressions.<br>c. of Time and Circumstance.<br>d. Ablative Absolute.  |

#### Ablative of Separation.

**243.** Words signifying Separation or Privation are followed by the ablative, with or without a preposition.

*a.* Verbs meaning to *remove, set free, be absent, deprive, and want*, require the ablative: as,

*oculis se privavit* (Fin. v. 29), *he deprived himself of eyes.*

*legibus solutus*, *relieved from the obligation of laws.*

*omni Gallia interdicat Romanos* (B. G. i. 46), *he [Ariovistus] bars the Romans from the whole of Gaul.*

*ei aqua et igni interdicatur* (Vell. Pat. ii. 45), *he is debarred the use of fire and water.*

*voluptatibus carere* (Cat. M. 3), *to lack enjoyments.*

*non ego medicina* (Lael. 3), *I want no physic.*

*magno me metu liberabis* (Cat. i. 5), *you will relieve me of great fear.*

*Ephorus calcaribus eget* (Quint.), *Ephorus needs the spur.*

*levamur superstitione, liberamur mortis metu* (Fin. i. 19), *we are relieved from superstition, freed from fear of death.*

*consilio et auctoritate orbari* (Cat. M. 6), *to be bereft of counsel and authority.*

*b.* Compounds of **a**, **ab**, **de**, **ex**, take the ablative when used *figuratively*; but in their literal sense (*separation or motion*) they usually require a preposition (compare 229) : as,

conatu desistere (B. G. i. 8), *to desist from the attempt.*  
 desine communibus locis (Acad. ii. 25), *quit commonplaces.*  
 abire magistratu, *to leave one's office.*  
 abstinere injuria, *to refrain from wrong.*  
 aberrare a proposito (Cic.), *to wander from the point.*  
 de provincia decedere (Verr. ii. 46), *to withdraw from one's province.*  
 ab jure abire (id.), *to go outside of the law.*  
 ex civitate excessere (B. G. vi. 8), *they departed from the State.*  
 finibus suis excesserant (id. iv. 18), *they had left their own territory.*

*c.* The ablative without a preposition is used after verbs to denote the *place from which* in some idiomatic expressions : as,

cessisset patria (Mil. 25), *he would have left his country.*  
 patria pellere, *to drive out of the country.*  
 manu mittere, *to emancipate* [let go from the hand].

*d.* Adjectives denoting Freedom and Want are followed by the ablative : as,

urbs nuda praesidio (Att. vii. 13), *the city naked of defence.*  
 immunis militia (Liv. i. 43), *free of military service.*  
 plebs orba tribunis (Leg. iii. 3), *the people deprived of tribunes.*

*e.* **Opus** and **usus** signifying Need are followed by the ablative ; often by the ablative of the *perfect participle*, with or without a noun : as,

magistratibus opus est (Leg. iii. 2), *there is need of magistrates.*  
 properato opus esset (Mil. 19), *there were need of haste.*

REMARK. — The nominative is often used, with **opus** in the predicate : as,

dux nobis et auctor opus est (Fam. ii. 6), *we need a chief and adviser.*  
 si quid ipsi opus esset (B. G. i. 34), *if he wanted anything.*

*f.* **Egeo** and **indigeo** are often followed by the genitive (223) : as,

ne quis auxilii egeat (B. G. vi. 11), *lest any require aid.*  
 quae ad consolandum majoris ingenii et ad ferendum singularis virtutis indigent (Fam. vi. 4), [sorrows] *which for comfort need more ability, and for endurance unusual courage.*

REMARK. — With all words of separation and want, the poets frequently, by a Greek idiom, use the Genitive : as,

abstineto irarum (Hor. Od. iii. 27), *abstain from wrath.*  
 operum solutis (id. 17), *free from toils.*

## Source and Material.

**244.** The ablative is used to denote the Source from which anything is derived, or the Material of which it consists (compare 214. *e*).

*a.* Participles denoting Birth or Origin are followed by the ablative. Such are *natus, satus, editus, genitus, ortus* : as,

Jove natus et Maia (N. D. iii. 22), *son of Jupiter and Maia.*

edite regibus (Hor. Od. i. 1), *descendant of kings.*

quo sanguine cretus (Æn. ii. 74), *born of what blood.*

REMARK. — A preposition (**ab, de, ex**) is usually expressed with the name of the Mother, and with that of distant ancestors.

*b.* Rarely, the place of Birth is expressed by the ablative : as,  
desideravit C. Felginatam Placentia, A. Granium Puteolis (B. C. iii. 71), *he lost C. F. of Placentia, A. G. of Puteoli.*

*c.* The ablative is used with *constare*<sup>1</sup> and similar verbs, to denote Material ; but with other verbs a preposition is generally used, except by the poets : as,

animo constamus et corpore (Fin. iv. 8), *we consist of soul and body.*

*d.* The ablative of Material is used with *facere, fieri*, and similar words in the sense of *do with, become of* : as,

quid hoc homine facias (Verr. ii. 16), *what are you going to do with this man ?*

quid Tulliola mea fiet (Fam. xiv. 4), *what will become of my dear Tullia ?*

quid te futurum est (Verr. ii. 64), *what will become of you ?*

## Ablative of Cause.

**245.** The ablative (with or without a preposition) is used to express the Cause.<sup>2</sup>

nimio gaudio paene desipiebam (Fam. i. 13), *I was almost wild with excess of joy.*

negligentia plectimur (Lael. 22), *we are chastised for negligence.*

gubernatoris ars utilitate non arte laudatur (Fam. i. 13), *the pilot's skill is praised for its service, not its skill.*

<sup>1</sup> The ablative with *consistere* and *contineri* is Locative in origin.

<sup>2</sup> The cause, in the Ablative, is considered as *source*, as is shown by the use of **ab, de, ex** ; but when the accusative with **ad, ob** is used, the idea of cause arises from *nearness*. But occasionally it is difficult to distinguish between *cause* and *means* (which is instrumental) or *circumstance* (either locative or instrumental).

*a.* The ablative is used with the adjectives *dignus, indignus*, and with the verbs *dignor, laboro* (also with *ex*), *exsilio, exsulto, triumpho, lacrimo, ardeo*.

*vir patre, avo, majoribus suis dignissimus* (Phil. iii. 10), *a man most worthy of his father, grandfather, and ancestors.*

*doleo te aliis maiis laborare* (Fam. iv. 3), *I am sorry that you suffer with other ills.*

*ex aere alieno laborare* (B. C. iii. 22), *to labor under debt.*

*exsultare laetitia ac triumphare gaudio coepit* (Clu. 5), *she began to exult in gladness, and triumph in joy.*

*b.* The motive which influences the mind of the person acting is expressed by the ablative alone; the object exciting the emotion often by *ob* or *propter* with the accusative: *as*,

*non ob praedam aut spoliandi cupidine* (Tac. H. i. 63), *not for booty or through lust of plunder.*

*c.* The ablatives *causā* and *gratiā*, *for the sake of*, are used with a genitive preceding, or with a possessive in agreement: *as*,

*ea causa, on account of this; mea causa, for my sake.*

*et mea et reipublicae causa, for my own sake and the republic's.*

*sui purgandi gratia, for the sake of clearing themselves.*

With possessives the use of *gratiā* in this sense is rare.

#### **Ablative of Agent.**

**246.** The voluntary agent after a passive verb is put in the ablative with *ab*: *as*,

*laudatur ab his, culpatur ab illis* (Hor. Sat. i. 2), *he is praised by these, blamed by those.*

*ab animo tuo quidquid agitur id agitur a te* (Tusc. i. 22), *whatever is done by your soul is done by yourself.*

*a.* The ablative of the agent with *ab* is sometimes used after neuter verbs having a passive sense: *as*,

*perire ab hoste, to be slain by an enemy.*

*b.* The agent, considered as instrument or means, is expressed by *per* with the accusative, or by *operā* with a genitive or possessive. Thus —

*Caesar certior factus est a legatis, Caesar was informed [in person] by the ambassadors.*

*Caesar certior factus est per legatos, Caesar was informed by ambassadors [i.e. by means of ambassadors].*

*Caesar certior factus est litteris, Caesar was informed by letter [per litteras would mean by official documents used expressly as means of information].*

So *per vim*, as well as *vi* (B. G. i. 14), *by force.*



## Ablative of Comparison.

247. The Comparative degree is followed by the ablative<sup>1</sup> (signifying THAN): as,

Cicerone eloquentior, *more eloquent than Cicero.*

quid nobis duobus laboriosius est (Mil. 2), *what more burdened with toil than we two?*

a. **Quam** with the same case as the thing compared may also be used, and must regularly be used when the adjective is not either nominative or accusative (see 208. a). But the poets sometimes use the ablative even then: as,

pane egeo jam mellitis potiore placentis (Hor. Ep. i. 10), *I want bread better than honey cakes.*

REMARK. — **Quam** is never used in this construction with relative pronouns having a definite antecedent.

b. The idiomatic ablatives *opinione*, *spe*, *solito*, *dicto*, *aequo*, *credibili*, and *justo*, are used instead of a clause: as,

celerius opinione (Fam. iv. 23), *faster than one would think.*

amnis solito citatior (Liv. xxii. 19), *a stream swifter than its wont.*

c. The comparatives *plus*, *minus*, *amplius*, *longius*, are often used with words of measure or number without affecting their case (being in a kind of apposition): as,

plus septingenti capti (Liv. xli. 12), *more than 700 were taken.*

plus tertia parte interfecta (Cæs.) *more than a third part being slain.*

spatium non amplius sexcentorum pedum (id.), *a space of not more than 600 feet.*

d. **Alius** is followed by the ablative in poetic and colloquial use: <sup>2</sup> as,

nec quicquam aliud libertate communi (Fam. xi. 2), *nothing else than the common liberty.*

alius Lysippo (Hor.), *another than Lysippus.*

[For Ablative of Difference with Comparatives, see 250.]

<sup>1</sup> Here the object of comparison is the *starting-point* from which we reckon, as itself possessing the quality in some degree. That this is the true explanation is shown by the ablative in Sanskrit, and the genitive in Greek.

<sup>2</sup> This is perhaps in imitation of the Greek; but the construction is found also in Sanskrit, and is probably original: as, *aliud sapiente bonoque* (Hor. Ep. i. 16). Under comparatives probably belong the adverbs *antea*, *antidea*, *postilla*, *postea*, *praeterea*, though these may be accusative neuter.

## Ablative of Means.

**248.** The ablative is used to denote Accompaniment, Manner, Means, or Instrument : as,

vultu Milonis perterritus (Mil. 15), *scared by the face of Milo.*

probabilia conjecturā sequens (id. 9), *following probabilities by conjecture.*

Fauno immolare agnā (Hor. Od. i. 4), *to sacrifice to Faunus with a ewe lamb.*

pol pudere quam pigere praestat totidem litteris (Plaut. Trin. 345), *by Pollux better shame than blame, although the letters count the same [lit. with as many letters].*

REMARK. — The Ablative of Manner commonly takes *cum*, unless it has a modifying adjective. But words of manner, *modo, ratione, viā*, etc., with certain expressions as *silentio, injuriā*, — hardly ever have *cum*.

*a.* The ablative of *accompaniment* regularly takes *cum* (except sometimes in military phrases, and a few isolated expressions, especially in the early writers) : as,

cum funditoribus sagittariisque flumen transgressi (B. G. ii. 19), *having crossed the river with the slingers and archers.*

subsequabatur omnibus copiis (ib.), *he followed close with all his forces.*

hoc praesidio profectus est (Verr. ii. 34), *with this convoy he set out.*

REMARK. — *Misceo* and *jungo*, with their compounds, may take the ablative of accompaniment, without *cum*, or sometimes the Dative : as, *actum cruori miscuit* (Ov.), *humano capiti cervicem equinam jungere* (Hor.).

*b.* Words of Contention require *cum*, but often take the dative in poetry : as,

armis cum hoste certare (Cic.), *to fight with the enemy in arms.*

est mihi tecum certamen (id.), *I have a controversy with you.*

solus tibi certat Amyntas (Ecl. v. 8), *Amyntas alone vies with you.*

*c.* The ablative of Means is used with words of Filling, Abounding, and the like : as,

Deus bonis omnibus explevit mundum (Univ. 3), *God has filled the world with all good things.*

opimus praeda (Verr. i. 50), *rich with spoil.*

vita plena et conferta voluptatibus (Sest. 10), *a life full and crowded with delight.*

Forum Appi differtum nautis (Hor. Sat. i. 5), *Forum Appii crammed with bargemen.*

REMARK. — These verbs and adjectives take the genitive in the poets by a Greek idiom ; while *compleo, impleo*, and *plenus* often take the genitive in prose.

**249.** The deponents *utor, fruor, fungor, potior, vescor*, with several of their compounds, govern the ablative: as,

*utar vestra benignitate* (Cic.), *I will avail myself of your kindness.*

*Numidae plerumque lacte et ferina carne vescebantur* (Jug. 88), *the Numidians fed mostly on milk and game.*

*sagacitate canum ad utilitatem nostram abutimur* (N. D. ii. 60), *we take advantage of the sagacity of dogs for our own benefit.*

*a.* **Potior** also takes the genitive, as always in the phrase **potiri rerum**, *to get the power.*

*b.* In early Latin, these verbs are often found as transitive, followed by the accusative.

**250.** The ablative is used, with comparatives and words implying comparison, to denote the Degree of Difference: as,

*duobus millibus plures, 2000 more* (*more numerous by 2000*).

*quinque millibus passuum distat* (Liv.), *it is five miles distant.*

REMARK. — This use is especially frequent with the ablatives *quo . . . eo; quanto . . . tanto* (see 106. c): as,

*quo minus cupiditatis eo plus auctoritatis* (Liv. xxiv. 28), *the less greed the more weight.*

N. B. — The ablative of Comparison and the ablative of Difference, expressing different relations, may be used together with the same adjective: as, **multo divitior Crasso**, *much richer than Crassus.*

#### Ablative of Quality.

**251.** The Ablative, with an Adjective or limiting Genitive, is used to denote QUALITY:<sup>1</sup> as,

*animo meliore, of better mind.*

*more hominum, after the manner of men.*

*non quaero quantā memoriā fuisse dicatur, I do not ask how great a memory he is said to have had.*

*a.* The Ablative of description (quality) is oftener used when *physical characteristics* are denoted; other qualities may be in the genitive: as,

*vultu sereno, of calm face.*

*capillo sunt promisso* (B. G. v. 14), *they have long hanging locks.*

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<sup>1</sup> Compare Genitive of Quality (215) with Note.

**Ablative of Price.**

**252.** The price of a thing (or that which is given in exchange) is put in the ablative : as,

*agrum vendidit sestertium sex millibus, he sold the field for 6000 sesterces.*

*exsilium patria sede mutavit (Q. C. iii. 8), he exchanged his native land for exile.*

REMARK. — Either the thing taken or given may be in the ablative, and the other in the accusative.

*a.* Certain adjectives of Quantity are used in the genitive to denote Indefinite Value (see 215. *c*). Such genitives are *magni, parvi, tanti, quanti, pluris, minoris* : as,

*est mihi tanti (Cat. ii. 7), it is worth my while.*

*mea magni interest, it is of great consequence to me.*

*b.* The genitive of certain nouns is used in the same way : as,

*non flocci faciunt (Pl. Trin.), they care not a straw.*

The genitives so used are *nihil, nothing*; *assis, a farthing*; *floccl, a lock of wool*, and a few others.

*c.* Verbs of exchange take the ablative of Price with or without *cum* : as,

*mortem cum vita commutare (Sulp. ad Cic.), to exchange life for death.*

*d.* With verbs of buying and selling, the ablative of Price (*magno, &c.*) must be used, except the following genitives : *tanti, quanti, pluris, minoris*.

**Ablative of Specification.**

**253.** The ablative denotes that *in respect to which* anything is said to be or be done, or *in accordance with which* anything happens : as,

*virtute praecedunt (B. G. i. 1), they excel in courage.*

*claudus altero pede (Nep. Ages.), lame of one foot.*

*lingua haesitantes, voce absoni (De Or. i.), hesitating in speech, harsh in voice. [So mea sententiâ, eâ condicione, and the like.]*

*tanta caritas patriae est, ut eam non sensu nostro sed salute ipsius metiamur. (Tusc. i. 37), such is our love of country that we measure it not by our own feeling, but by her own welfare.*

**Locative Ablative.**

**254.** The locative ablative is used to denote the *place where* (usually with a preposition), and the *time when*.

a. The ablative of the *place where* is retained in many idiomatic expressions (compare 259. a) : as,

pendemus animis (Tusc. i. 40), *we are in suspense of mind.*

socius periculis vobiscum adero (Jug. 85), *I will be present with you a companion in dangers.*

permit altum corde dolorem (Æn. i. 209), *he keeps down the pain deep in his heart.*

b. The following verbs are followed by the ablative : *acquiesco, delector, laetor, gaudeo, glorior, nitor, sto, maneo, fido (confido), consisto, contineor*, — with the verbals *fretus, contentus, laetus* : as,

spe niti (Att. iii. 9), *to rely on hope.*

prudencia fidens (Off. i. 33), *trusting in prudence.*

laetari bonis rebus (Lael. 13), *to rejoice in good things.*

REMARK. — The above verbs sometimes take the preposition *in*.

#### Ablative Absolute.

255. A noun or pronoun, with a participle,<sup>1</sup> is put in the ablative, to define the Time or Circumstances of an action : as,

vocatis ad se undique mercatoribus (B. G. iv. 20), *having called to him the traders from all quarters.*

a. An adjective, or another noun, may take the place of the participle :<sup>2</sup> as,

exigua parte aestatis reliqua (id.), *when but a small part of the summer was left.*

M. Messala et M. Pisone consulibus (id. i. 2), *in the consulship of Messala and Piso.*

b. Sometimes a participle or adjective (under the construction of the Ablative Absolute) is put in agreement with a phrase or clause, or is used adverbially : as,

incerto quid peterent, *since it was uncertain what they sought.*

consulto et cogitato (Off. i. 8), *on purpose and with reflection* [the matter having been deliberated and thought on].

sereno (Liv. xxxi. 12), *under a clear sky.*

<sup>1</sup> The noun is originally locative denoting *circumstance*, considered as *place* or *time*; then, being modified by a participle, it becomes fused with it into a single idea, equivalent to that contained in a subordinate clause (compare **ab urbe condita**, *from the founding of the city*, lit. *from the founded city*). After the construction was established, other ablatives (of *cause, instrument, &c.*), were occasionally used in the same way. The construction was so developed in Latin, that a *subordinate clause* is often represented by it. In such cases the noun is equivalent to the subject, and the participle, adjective, or noun to the Predicate, and should so be translated (see examples on the next page).

<sup>2</sup> The participle of *esse*, wanting in Latin, would be used in Sanskrit and Greek.

NOTE. — As the Nominative absolute is less common in English, a change of form is generally required in translation. Thus the present participle is oftenest to be rendered by a relative clause with *when* or *while*; and the perfect passive participle by the perfect active participle in English. These changes may be seen in the following example: —

“At illi, *intermisso spatio, imprudentibus nostris*, atque *occupatis* in munitione castrorum, subito se ex silvis ejecerunt; *impetuque* in eos facto, qui erant in statione pro castris collocati, acriter pugnaverunt; *duabusque missis subsidio cohortibus* a Caesare, cum hae (*perexiguo intermisso loci spatio* inter se) constitissent, novo genere pugnae *perterritis nostris*, per medios audacissime perupperunt, seque inde incolumes receperunt.” — CÆSAR, B. G. v. 15.

“But they, *having paused a space, while our men were unaware and busied* in fortifying the camp, suddenly threw themselves out of the woods; then *making an attack* upon those who were on guard in front of the camp, fought fiercely; and, *though two cohorts had been sent to their relief by Cæsar, after these had taken their position (leaving very little space of ground between them), as our men were alarmed* by the strange kind of fighting, they dashed most daringly through the midst of them, and got off safe.”

[For the Ablative with Prepositions, see p. 101.]

## TIME AND PLACE.

### 1. — Time.

256. Time *when* (or *within which*) is put in the Ablative; time *how long* in the Accusative: <sup>1</sup> as,

constituta die, *on the set day.*

quota hora? *at what o'clock?*

tribus proxumis annis (Jug. 11), *within the last three years.*

dies continuos triginta, *for a month together.*

a. The use of a preposition gives greater precision and clearness: as,

in diebus proximis decem (Sall.), *within the next ten days.*

ludi per decem dies (Cat. iii. 8), *games lasting ten days.*

b. The ablative is rarely used to express duration of time: as,

milites quinque horis proelium sustinuerant (B. C. i. 47), *the men had sustained the fight five hours.* [This use is *locative*.]

<sup>1</sup> The ablative of time is *locative*; the accusative is the same as that of *extent of space* (see below, 259. d).

## 2. — Space.

**257.** Extent of space is put in the Accusative:<sup>1</sup> as,

*fossas quindecim pedes latas* (B. G. vii. 72), *trenches 13 feet broad.*

*in omni vita sua quemque a recta conscientia transversum unguem non oportet discedere* (quoted in Att. xiii. 20), *in all one's life, one should not depart a nail's breadth from straightforward conscience.*

*a.* Measure is often expressed as quality by the Genitive (215. *b*): as,

*vallo pedom duodecim* (B. G. ii. 30), *in a rampart of 12 feet [in height].*

*b.* Distance is put in the Accusative (as *extent of space*), or in the Ablative (as *degree of difference*): as,

*quinque dierum iter abest*<sup>2</sup> (Liv. xxx. 29), *it is distant five days' march.*

*triginta millibus passuum infra eum locum* (B. G. vi. 35), *thirty miles below that place.*

## 3. — Place.

**258.** To express relations of Place, prepositions are necessary, except with the names of Towns and small Islands; except also with *domus*, *rus*, and a few other words in special relations;<sup>3</sup> except also in Poetry.

*a.* The name of the place *from which* is in the Ablative: as,

*Romā profectus*, *having set out from Rome.*<sup>4</sup>

*rure reversus*, *having returned from the country.*

*b.* The name of the place *to which* is in the Accusative: as,

*Romam rediit*, *he returned to Rome.*

*rus ibo*, *I shall go into the country.*

REMARK. — The old construction is retained in the phrases *exsequias ire*, *infittias ire*, *pessum ire*, *pessum dare*, *venum dare* (*vendere*), *venum ire* (*veneo*), *foras*, and with the Supine in *um*, and in poetry.

<sup>1</sup> This accusative is the object *through* or *over which* the action takes place, and is kindred with the accusative of the *end of motion*. <sup>2</sup> From Rome, a *Roma*.

<sup>3</sup> Originally these relations were expressed with all words by the *cases alone*, — the Accusative denoting the end of motion as in a certain sense the *object* of the action; and the Ablative (in its proper meaning of *separation*) denoting the place from which. For the place *where* there was a special case, the Locative, the form of which was partially retained and partially merged in the Ablative (see Note, p. 168). The Prepositions (originally Adverbs) were added to define more exactly the *direction* of the motion, and by long usage at length became necessary, except in the cases given above. <sup>4</sup> To be absent from Rome, *Roma abesse*.

c. The name of the place *where* takes the Locative form, which in the first and second declensions singular is the same as the Genitive; in the plural, and in the third declension, the same as the Dative or Ablative: as,

Romae, at Rome.

Athenis, at Athens.

Rhodi, at Rhodes.

Curibus, at Cures.

Lanuvi, at Lanuvium.

Tiburī or Tibure, at Tibur.

REMARK. — The names of small islands, as *Capreae*, *Samos*, *Salamis*, are regularly used in this construction; sometimes also larger distant islands, which might be thought of as a single spot: thus, *Cretae*, *Cypri*. But, when regarded as a district or province, the name of a large island (like Sicily) always requires a preposition, like names of countries. So too a small island, when thought of as territory: as, in *Ithaca lepores illati moriuntur* (Plin.: cf. 256. a).

d. The words *domi* (rarely *domui*), at home; *belli*, militiae (in contrast to *domi*), abroad, in military service; *humī*, on the ground; *ruri*, in the country; *foris*, out-of-doors; *terra marique*, by land and sea, are used like names of towns, without a preposition; also *heri*, *vesperi*, *infelici arbori* (Liv.).

e. A genitive or possessive may be used with *domus* in this construction; but, when it is modified in any other way, a preposition is generally used: as,

*domi Caesaris*, at Caesar's house.

*domi suae vel alienae*, at his own or another's house (compare 184. d).

in *M. Laecae domum* (Cat. i. 4), to *Laeca's house*.

f. The ablative is used without a preposition to denote the *place where*, in many general words — as *loco*, *parte* — regularly; frequently with nouns when qualified by adjectives (regularly where *totus* is used); and in poetry in any case: as,

*quibus loco positis* (De Or. iii. 38), when these are set in position.

*qua parte victi erant* (Att. ix. 11), on the side where they were beaten.

*exercitum castris continuit* (B. G. i. 48).

*mediā urbe* (Liv. i. 33), in the midst of the city.

*totā Siciliā* (Verr. iv. 23), throughout Sicily.

*litore curvo* (Aen. iii. 16), on the bending shore.

REMARK. — To denote the neighborhood of a place (*to*, *from*, in the neighborhood), Prepositions must be used.

g. The way *by which* is put in the Ablative (of instrument): as, *viā breviori equites praemisi* (Fam. x. 9), I sent forward the cavalry by a shorter road.

*Aegeo mari trajecit* (Liv. xxxvii. 14), he crossed by way of the Aegean sea.



## Special Uses.

259. The following special uses require to be observed :—

*a.* Many expressions have in Latin the construction of *time when*, where in English time is not the main idea : as,

pugnā Cannensi (or apud Cannas), *in the fight at Cannæ.*

ludis Romanis, *at the Roman games.*

omnibus Gallicis bellis, *in all the wars of Gaul.*

*b.* In many expressions of time, the accusative with *ad*, *in*, or *sub*, is used. Such are the following :—

supplicatio decreta est in Kalendas Januarias, *a thanksgiving was voted for the 1st of January.*

convenerunt ad diem, *they assembled at the [appointed] day.*

ad vesperum, *till evening*; sub vesperum, *towards (about) evening.*

sub idem tempus, *about the same time.*

*c.* Time either *during* or *within which* may be expressed by a noun in the singular, with an ordinal numeral : as,

quinto die, *within (just) four days.*

regnat jam sextum annum, *he has reigned going on six years.* But also,

regnavit jam sex annos, *he has already reigned for six years.*

*d.* Distance of time before or after any thing is variously expressed : as,

post (ante) tres annos, post tertium annum, tres post annos, tertium post annum, tribus post annis, tertio post anno, *three years after.*

tribus annis (tertio anno) post exsilium (post quam ejectus est), *three years after his banishment.*

his tribus proximis annis, *within the last three years.*

paucis annis, *a few years hence.*

abhinc annos tres (tribus annis), ante hos tres annos, *three years ago.*

triennium est cum (tres anni sunt cum), *it is three years since.*

*e.* In Dates, the phrase *ante diem* (a. d.) with an ordinal, or the ordinal alone, is followed by an accusative, like a preposition ; and the phrase itself may be governed by a preposition. The year is expressed by the names of the Consuls in the ablative absolute, often without a conjunction : as,

is dies erat a. d. quintum kalendas Aprilis L. Pisone A. Gabinio consulibus (B. G. i. 6), *that day was the 5th before the calends of April [March 28], in the consulship of Piso and Gabinius.*

in a. d. V. kal. Nov. (Cat. i. 3), *to the 5th day before the calends of November [Oct. 28].*

xv. kal. Sextilis, *the 15th day before the calends of August (July 18)* [Full form, *quinto decimo die ante kalendas.*]

*f.* With names of Places (except towns, &c., see 258), TO is expressed by **in** or **ad** with the accusative; IN by **in** or **ab** with the ablative; FROM by **ab**, **de**, **ex**, with the ablative. But **AT**, meaning *near* (not *in*), is expressed with all names of place by **ad** or **apud**, with the accusative.

*g.* When *motion to* a place is implied in English, though not expressed, in Latin, the accusative must be used, with or without a preposition: as,

conjurati in curiam convenerunt, *the conspirators met in the Senate house.*

concilium domum suam convocavit, *he called a council at his own house.*

*h.* When several names of place follow a verb of motion, each must be under its own construction. Thus —

quadriduo quo haec gesta sunt res ad Chrysogonum in castra L. Sullae Volaterras defertur (Ros. Am. 7), *within a few days after this was done, the matter was reported TO Chrysogonus IN Sylla's camp AT Volaterra.*

## USE OF PREPOSITIONS.

260. Prepositions are used with either the Accusative or Ablative.<sup>1</sup>

[For the list of Prepositions, see page 101.]

*a.* Verbs of *placing*, — such as **pono** and its compounds (except **impono**), **loco**, **statuo**, &c., — though implying motion, take in Latin the construction of the place *in which*: as,

qui in sede ac domo collocavit (Parad. iii. 2), *who put one into his place and home.*

*b.* Position is frequently expressed in Latin with **ab** (rarely **ex**), properly meaning *from*:<sup>2</sup> as,

a tergo, *in the rear.*

a parte Pompeiana, *on the side of Pompey.*

a sinistra (compare hinc. *on this side*), *on the left hand.*

ex altera parte, *on the other side.*

magna ex parte, *in a great degree.*

*c.* When it means *concerning*, **super** takes the Ablative; otherwise the Accusative (except in poetry): as,

hac super re (Cic.), *concerning this thing.*

super culmina tecti (Æn. ii. 695), *above the house-top.*

<sup>1</sup> The force lies strictly with the Case, and the preposition only indicates more clearly *direction* or *place*.

<sup>2</sup> Apparently the direction whence the sensual impression comes.

d. After *subter*, the Accusative is used, except sometimes in poetry: as,

*subter togam* (Liv.), *under his mantle*.

*subter litore* (Catull.), *below the shore*.

e. *Tenus* (which follows its noun) regularly takes the Ablative, sometimes the Genitive: as,

*Tauro tenus* (Dei. 13), *as far as Taurus*.

*capulo tenus* (Aen. v. 55), *up to the hilt*.

*Corcyrae tenus* (Liv. xxv. 24), *as far as Corcyra*.

NOTE. — *Tenus* is found especially with the feminine of the adjective pronouns, in an adverbial sense: as,

*hactenus*, *hitherto*; *quatenus*, *so far as*, &c.

261. Many words may be construed either as Prepositions or as Adverbs: as,

a. The adverbs *pridie*, *postridie*, *propius*, *proxime*, *usque* — also (less frequently) the adjectives *propior* and *proximus* — may be followed by the Accusative: as,

*pridie Nonas Junias* (Cic.), *the day before the Nones of June* (Jun. 4).

*postridie ludos* (id.), *the day after the games* (or genitive: see 214. g).

*terminos usque Libyae* (Just.), *to the bounds of Libya* (a late use).

*ipse propior montem suos collocat* (Sall. Jug. 49), *he stations his men nearer the hill* (used also with the genitive or dative, or with *ab*).

*proxime Pompeium sedebam* (Att. i. 14), *I sat next Pompey* (used also with the dative, or with *ab*).

b. The adverbs *palam*, *procul*, *simul*, may take the Ablative: as,

*rem creditori palam populo solvit* (Liv. vi. 14), *he paid the debt in the presence of the people*. [This use is comparatively late.]

*haud procul castris in modum municipii exstructa* (Tac. H. iv. 22), *not far from the camp, built up like a town*. [But *procul* is regularly followed by *ab* in classic use.]

*simul nobis habitat barbarus* (Ov. Tr. v. 10, 29), *close among us dwells the barbarian*. [But *simul* regularly takes *cum*.]

c. The adverb *clam* is found with the Accusative or Ablative, rarely with the Genitive or Dative: as,

*clam matrem suam* (Plaut.), *unknown to his mother*.

*clam mihi* (id.), *in secret from me*.

*clam patris* (id.), *in secret from his father*.

*clam vobis* (Cæs. B. C. ii. 32), *without your knowledge*.

d. Prepositions often retain their original meaning as Adverbs. This is especially the case with *ante* and *post*, in relations of Time; *adversus*, *contra*, *circiter*, *prope*; and, in general, those ending in *ā*. *Clam* and *versus* are often excluded from the list of Prepositions.

[For the use of Prepositions in Composition, see 170, p. 116.]

262. Some prepositions or adverbs which imply Comparison are followed, like comparatives, by *quam*,—several words, or even clauses, sometimes coming between: as,

*neque ante dimisit eum quam fidem dedit* (Liv. xxxix. 10), *nor did he let him go until he gave a pledge.*

*post diem tertium quam dixerat* (Man. 16), *the third day after he said it.* [So *octavo mense quam*, Liv. xxi. 15.]

NOTE.—Such words are *ante*, *prius*, *post*, *pridie*, *postridie*; also *magis* and *prae* in compounds: as,

*Cato ipse jam servire quam pugnare mavult* (Att. vii. 15), *Cato himself by this time would rather be a slave than fight.*

*si jam principatum Galliae obtinere non possint, Gallorum quam Romanorum imperia praeferre* (B. G. i. 17), *if they can no longer hold the chief rank in Gaul, they prefer the rule of Gauls to that of Romans.*

263. The ablative, with *a* or *ab*, is regularly used after passive verbs to denote the Agent, if a person, or if spoken of as a person: as,

*jussus a patre*, *bidden by his father.*

REMARK.—The ablative of the *agent* (which requires the preposition) must be carefully distinguished from the ablative of *instrument*, which stands by itself: as,

*occisus gladio*, *slain by a sword.*

*occisus ab hoste*, *slain by an enemy.*

[For the Dative of the Agent, with the Gerundive, see 232.]

NOTE.—The following prepositions sometimes follow their nouns:—*ad*, *citra*, *circa*, *contra*, *de*, *e* (*ex*), *inter*, *juxta*, *penes*, *propter*, *ultra*, *tenus*, and occasionally others: as,

[*usus*] *quem penes arbitrium est et jus et norma loquendi* (Hor. A. P. 72), *custom, under whose control is the choice, right, and rule of speech.*

*cujus a me corpus est crematum, quod contra decuit ab illo meum* (C. M. 23), *whose body I burned [on the funeral pile], while on the contrary (lit. contrary to which) mine should have been by him.*

Chapter III.—*Syntax of the Verb.*I.—*Moods and Tenses.*

NOTE.—The syntax of the Verb relates chiefly to the use of the Moods (expressing the *manner* in which the action is conceived) and the Tenses (expressing the *time* of the action). There is no difference in origin between mood and tense. The moods, except the Infinitive, are only specialized tenses; and hence the uses of mood and tense frequently cross each other. Thus the tenses sometimes have modal significations (compare indicative in apodosis, see 311. *c*; future for imperative, see 269. *f*); and the moods express time (compare subjunctive in future conditions, and notice the want of a future subjunctive).

The original language, besides the imperative mood, had two distinct forms with what we call modal signification: the Subjunctive, expressing an action *willed* or *vividly conceived*; and the Optative, expressing an action *wished for* or *vaguely conceived*. Of these, the Subjunctive was developed from a Present tense, by which an action continued in present time was represented as Future: compare in English, *the army marches to-morrow*. Such an action came to be conceived on the one hand as Command: compare the military order, *the regiment will advance*; and in the other as a Possibility or a mere Conception: compare *anybody will understand that*.

The Optative has had a similar development from a tense-form compounded with YA, *to go*. But it is probable that it originally had the signification of a Past tense: compare the English *should* and *would*. At any rate, the optative has, in the same way as the subjunctive, acquired the two meanings of Conception and Command. It must not be supposed, however, that in any given construction either of the moods was used *because* it denoted a conception or possibility; but each construction has had its own line of development from more tangible forms of thought to more vague and ideal. Thus in English the expression *I would do this* has come to be almost equivalent to a mild command; while by analysis it is seen to be the apodosis of a condition contrary to fact: *if I were you*, &c. By a still further analysis, *I would go* is seen to have meant, originally, *I should have wished to go*, or *I did wish*.

In Latin, these two moods have become confounded in form and meaning in the Present Subjunctive; and new tense-forms of the subjunctive have been produced by composition,<sup>1</sup> to which the original as well as derived meanings of these moods have become attached (see 265). All the *independent* uses of the subjunctive are thus to be accounted for.

<sup>1</sup> For the signification of these tense endings, see page 65, Note 1.

The *dependent* uses of the subjunctive have arisen from its use in one of these independent senses, — at first co-ordinately with a main statement (*parataxis*), afterwards in subordinate relations (*syntaxis*). In time, the second has become so closely connected in thought with the first, that the two have become one compound statement ; the original meaning of the mood has disappeared, and a new meaning has arisen by implication : as, *tolle hanc opinionem, luctum sustuleris* (remove this notion, you will have done away with grief : i. e. *if you remove, &c*) ; or, *misit legatos qui dicerent* (i. e. *who would say* in a supposed case).

The Infinitive is originally a verbal noun, modifying a verb like other nouns ; *volo videre*, lit. "I wish for seeing : " compare English *what went ye out for to see* ? But in Latin it has been surprisingly developed, so as to have forms for tense, and some proper modal characteristics, and to be used as a substitute for other moods.

The other noun and adjective forms of the verb have been developed in various special directions, which are treated under their respective heads below. The several verbal constructions proper are the following : —

1. INDICATIVE : Direct Assertion or Question ; Absolute Time.

- |                  |   |  |   |   |                                    |
|------------------|---|--|---|---|------------------------------------|
|                  | { | a. Independent : Wish, Exhortation, Command, Question. | { | Purpose or Result (with <i>ut, ne</i> ).        |                                    |
| 2. SUBJUNCTIVE : |   |  |   | Characteristic (Relative Clause).               |                                    |
|                  | { | b. Dependent (Chap. v.)                                | { | Relative Time (with <i>cum</i> ).               |                                    |
|                  |   |  |   | Conditions                                      | Future (primary tenses).           |
|                  |   |  |   |   | Contrary to Fact.                  |
|                  |   |  |   |   | Intermediate (Indirect Discourse). |
|                  | { |  | { | Indirect Questions or Commands.                 |                                    |
| 3. IMPERATIVE :  |   |  |   | a. Direct Commands (often subjunctive).         |                                    |
|                  |   |  |   | b. Statutes, Laws and Wills (Future).           |                                    |
|                  | { |  | { | c. Prohibitions (early or poetic use).          |                                    |
|                  |   |  |   | a. Subject of <i>esse</i> and Impersonal verbs. |                                    |
| 4. INFINITIVE :  |   |  |   | b. Object                                       | Complementary Infinitive.          |
|                  | { |  | { | Indirect Discourse (with subject-accusative).   |                                    |
|                  |   |  |   | c. Idiomatic Uses                               | Purpose (poetic or Greek use).     |
|                  |   |  |   |   | Exclamation (with subject-accus.). |
|                  |   |  |   | Historical Infinitive.                          |                                    |

## MOODS.

### I. — THE INDICATIVE.

264. The Indicative is the mood of direct assertions or questions when there is no modification of the verbal idea except that of time. ✚

a. The tenses of the Indicative denote Absolute Time ; that is, present, past, or future, with reference to the speaker.

*b.* The indicative is sometimes used where the English idiom would suggest the subjunctive, chiefly in conditional sentences (compare 307. *b, c*) : as,

longum est, *it would be tedious* [*if, &c.*].

satius erat, *it would have been better* [*if, &c.*].

persequi possum, *I might follow up* [in detail].

*c.* The Future Indicative is sometimes used for the Imperative (see 269. *f*).

*d.* The indicative is used in some kinds of Conditions (see 306, 308).

*e.* The place of the indicative in narration is sometimes supplied by the Infinitive (see 275).

*f.* In Indirect Discourse (see Chap. V.), a narrative clause takes the Infinitive.

## II. — THE SUBJUNCTIVE.

### General Use.

**265.** The Subjunctive in general expresses the verbal idea with some modification<sup>1</sup> such as is expressed in English by potential auxiliaries, by the Infinitive, or by the rare Subjunctive.

*a.* The subjunctive is used Independently to express —

1. An Exhortation, Concession, or Command (*Hortatory*) ;
2. A Wish (*Optative*) ;
3. A Question of doubt or deliberation (*Dubitative*).

These (with the exception of some forms of Dubitative Subjunctive) are closely akin to one another, and are different phases of the same use.

**REMARK.** — In the conclusion (*Apodosis*) of Conditional Sentences, the Subjunctive is grammatically independent, though logically it depends on a Condition expressed or implied. The so-called Potential Subjunctive comes under this head (see 311. *a*).

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<sup>1</sup> These modifications, however, are of various kinds, each of which has had its own special development (compare introductory Note, p. 184). The Subjunctive in Latin has besides many idiomatic uses (see clauses of Result and Relative Time), where we do not modify the verbal idea at all, but express it directly; but in these cases the Latin merely takes a different view of the action, and has developed its construction differently from English.

b. The subjunctive is used in Dependent Clauses to express —

1. Purpose or Result (*Final* or *Consecutive*);
2. Relative Time (*Temporal*);
3. Characteristic;
4. Indirect Question;
5. Condition: Future or Contrary to Fact.

c. The subjunctive is also used with Particles of Comparison, and in Subordinate Clauses of Indirect Discourse.

#### Hortatory.

266. The Subjunctive is used in the Present — less commonly in the Perfect — to express an Exhortation, a Concession, or a Command: as,

hos latrones interficiamus (B. G. vii. 58), *let us kill these robbers.*

caveant intemperantiam, meminerint verecundiae (Off. i. 34), *let them shun excess and cherish modesty.*

Epicurus hoc viderit (Acad. ii. 7), *let Epicurus look to this.*

NOTE. — The Perfect represents an action as *complete in the future*; but in most cases it can hardly be distinguished from the Present.

a. The Second Person is used only of an *indefinite subject*, except in prohibition, in early Latin, and in poetry (cf. 269. b): as,

injurias fortunae, quas ferre nequeas, defugiendo relinquas (Tusc. v. 41), *the wrongs of fortune, which you cannot bear, you may leave behind by flight.*

nihil ignoveris (Mur. 31), *pardon nothing.*

b. In Prohibitions, addressed to a definite person, the perfect is more common than the present (compare 269. a): as,

hoc facito: hoc ne feceris (Div. ii. 61), *thou shalt do this; thou shalt not do that.*

nec mihi illud dixeris (Fin. i. 7), *do not say that to me.*

c. The subjunctive is used — sometimes with *ut*, *quamvis*, *quamlibet*, and similar words — to express a CONCESSION: <sup>1</sup> as,

nemo is unquam fuit: ne fuerit (Or. 29), *there never was such a one [you will say]: granted.*

quamvis comis in amicitiiis tuendis fuerit (Fin. ii. 25), *amiable as he may have been in keeping his friendships.*

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<sup>1</sup> In this use, the Present refers to *future* or *indefinite* time: the Imperfect to *present* or *past* time, — the concession being impliedly untrue; the Perfect to *past* time or *completed future* time; the Pluperfect to *completed action in past* time (usually untrue).



ne sit summum malum dolor, malum certe est (Tusc. ii. 5), *granted that pain is not the greatest evil, at least it is an evil.*

fuert aliis : tibi quando esse coepit (Verr. i. 41), *suppose he was [so] to others, when did he begin to be to you ?*

ut rationem Plato nullam afferret (Tusc. i. 21), *though Plato adduced no reasons.*

quamvis scelerati illi fuissent (de Or. i. 53), *however guilty they might have been.*

REMARK. — Concessions with *si* and its compounds belong to Protasis (see 204) ; with *licet*, to Substantive Clauses (see p. 225).

d. The subjunctive is used — sometimes with *modo*, *modo ne*, *tantum*, *tantum ne*, or *ne* alone — to denote a PROVISO : as,

valetudo modo bona sit (Brut. 16), *if only the health be good.*

modo ne sit ex pecudum genere (Off. i. 30), *provided only he be not of brutish stock.*

manent ingenia senibus, modo permaneat studium et industria (Cat. M. 7), *old men retain their mind if they only retain their zeal and diligence.*

e. The Imperfect and Pluperfect of the hortatory subjunctive denote an *obligation in past time*, — the latter more clearly representing the time for the action as past : as,

moreretur, inquires (Rab. Post. 10), *he should have died you will say.*

ne poposcisses (Att. ii. 1), *you should not have asked.*

potius diceret (Off. iii. 22), *he should rather have said.*

saltem aliquid de pondere detraxisset (Fin. iv. 20), *at least he should have taken something from the weight.*

REMARK. — This use of the subjunctive is carefully to be distinguished from its use in Apodosis (Potential), as is indicated by the translation, *should* instead of *would*.

#### Optative.

267. The Subjunctive is used to denote a Wish, — the present, a wish conceived as *possible* ; the imperfect, an unaccomplished one in the *present* ; the pluperfect, one unaccomplished in the *past* : as,

ita vivam (Att. v. 15), *so may I live [as true as I live].*

ne vivam si scio (id. iv. 16), *I wish I may not live if I know.*

di te perduint (Deiot.), *the gods confound thee !*

valeant, valeant, cives mei ; valeant, sint incolumes (Mil. 34), *farewell [he says], my fellow-citizens ; may they be secure from harm.*

di facerent sine patre forem (Ov. Met. viii. 72), *would that the gods allowed me to be without a father !*

NOTE. — The subjunctive of Wish without a particle is hardly found in the imperfect or pluperfect except by sequence of tenses in Indirect Discourse: as,

ac venerata Ceres ita culmo surgeret alto (Hor. S. ii. 2, 124), and *Ceres worshipped [with libations] that so she might rise with tall stalk.*

a. The Perfect in this use is antiquated: as,  
male di tibi faxint (Plaut. Curc. 131), *may the gods do thee a mischief.*

b. The particles *ut* (ut), *utinam*, *O si*,<sup>1</sup> often precede the subjunctive of Wish: as,

falsus utinam vates sim (Liv. xxi.), *I wish I may be a false prophet.*  
utinam P. Clodius viveret (Mil. 38), *would that Clodius were now alive.*  
utinam me mortuum vidisses (Q. Fr. i. 3), *would you had seen me dead.*  
ut pereat positum rubigine telum (Hor. Sat. ii. 1), *may the weapon unused perish with rust.*

c. *Velim* and *vellem*,<sup>2</sup> also their compounds, with a subjunctive or infinitive, are often equivalent to a proper optative subjunctive: as,

de Menedemo vellem verum fuisset, de regina velim verum sit (Att. iv. 16), *about Menedemus I wish it had been true; about the queen I hope it may be.*

nollem accidisset tempus (Fam. iii. 10), *I wish the time never had come.*

[For *Concessive Subjunctive*, see p. 187; for *Potential Subjunctive*, see p. 225.]

#### Dubitative.

268. The Subjunctive is used in questions implying doubt, indignation, or an impossibility of the thing being done: as,

quid hoc homine facias? quod supplicium dignum libidini ejus invenias (Verr. ii. 16), *what are you to do with this man? what fit penalty can you devise for his wantonness?*

quis enim celaverit ignem (Ov. Her. xv. 7), *who could conceal the flame?*  
an ego non venirem (Phil. ii. 2), *what, should I not have come?*

quid dicerem (Att. vi. 3), *what was I to say?*

mihi umquam bonorum praesidium defuturum putarem (Mil. 34), *could I think that the defence of good men would ever fail me?*

REMARK. — This use is apparently derived from the *hortatory* subjunctive: *quid faciamus* = *faciamus* [*aliquid*] — *quid*? Once established, it is readily transferred to the past: *quid faciam*? *quid facerem*? Some of the uses, however, cannot be distinguished from Apodosis (cf. 305).

<sup>1</sup> In this use, the particle has no effect on the grammatical construction, except that the clause with *O si* is probably a Protasis. See 312. Note.

<sup>2</sup> These are strictly Apodoses, the thing wished being in a dependent clause, and the Protasis omitted.

## III.—THE IMPERATIVE.

**269.** The Imperative is used in Commands ; also, by early writers and poets, in Prohibitions : as,

consulite vobis, prospicite patriae, conservate vos (Cat. iv. 2), *have care for yourselves, guard the country, preserve yourselves.*

nimum ne crede colori (Ecl. ii. 17), *trust not complexion overmuch.*

a. Prohibitions are regularly (in classical Latin) expressed—

1. by *ne* with the second person singular of the Perfect Subjunctive ; 2. by *noli* with the Infinitive ; 3. by *cave* (colloquially *fac ne*) with the Present or Perfect Subjunctive : as,

ne territus fueris (Tac. H. i. 16), *be not frightened.*

noli putare (Brut. 33), *do not suppose.*

cave faxis (Ter. Heaut. 187), *do not do it.*

fac ne quid aliud cures (Fam. xvi. 11), *pray attend to nothing else.*

b. In early Latin, in poetry, and in general prohibitions, the Present subjunctive is also used (see 266. a) : as,

denique isto bono utare dum adsit : cum absit ne requiras (C. M. 10), *in short, use this good while present ; when wanting, do not regret it.*

c. The *third person* of the Imperative is antiquated or poetic :  
ollis salus populi suprema lex esto (id.), *the safety of the people shall be their first law.*

iusta imperia sunt, iisque cives modeste parento (Leg. iii. 3), *let the commands be just, and let the citizens strictly obey them.*

d. The Future Imperative is used where there is a distinct reference to *future time* : viz.,

1. In connection with a *future or future-perfect* ;

2. With adverbs or other expressions of Time ;

3. In *general directions*, as Precepts, Statutes, and Wills : as,

cum valetudini consulueris, tum consulito navigationi (Fam. xvi. 4), *when you have attended to your health, then look to your sailing.*

is juris civilis custos esto (Leg. iii. 3), *let him (the prætor) be the guardian of civil right.*

e. The Future form of the imperative is regularly used of *scio*, *memini*, and *habeo* (in the sense of *consider*) : as,

filiolo me auctum scito (Att. i. 2), *learn that I am blessed with a little boy.*

sic habeto, mi Tiro (Fam. xvi. 4), *so understand it, my good Tiro.*

de palla memento, amabo (Pl. Asin.), *pray, dear, remember the gown.*

f. The Future is sometimes used for the imperative ; and *quin* (*why not ?*) with the present indicative may have the force of an imperative : as,

si quid acciderit novi, facies ut sciam (Fam. xiv. 8), *you will let me know if any thing new happens.*

quin accipis ? (Ter. Heaut. iv. 7), *here, take it.*

IV.—THE INFINITIVE.

NOTE.—The Infinitive denotes the action of the verb as an *abstract noun*, differing, however, from other abstract nouns in the following points: (1) It admits, in many cases, of the distinction of *tense*; (2) It is modified by *adverbs* and not by *adjectives*; (3) It governs the case of its verb; (4) It is only used in special constructions. The Infinitive is properly the *Dative case* of an abstract noun, denoting Purpose, which has developed in Latin, in many cases, into a substitute for a finite verb. Hence the variety of its use. Its Subject is, strictly, the Object of some other verb, which has become attached to it: as, *jubeo te valere*, lit., *I command you for being well* (i. e. that you may be well), just as, in Purpose-clauses, the purpose becomes the object of command.

270. The Infinitive, with or without a subject accusative, may be used as the Subject of a verb, or in predicate apposition: as,

*nihil est aliud bene et beate vivere, nisi honeste et recte vivere* (Parad. i. 6), *to live well and happily, is nothing else than to live honorably and rightly.*

*nam istuc ipsum non esse cum fueris miserrimum puto* (Tusc. i. 6), *for I think this very thing most wretched, not to be when one has been.*

a. The infinitive as Subject is found chiefly with *esse* and impersonal verbs, — rarely with others.

b. The infinitive is used with many impersonal verbs and expressions, partly as Subject and partly as Complement: as,

*id primum in poetis cerni licet* (De Or. iii. 7), *this may be seen first in poets.*

*reperiebat quid dici opus esset* (Brut. 59), *he found what needed to be said.*

*haec praescripta servantem licet magnifice vivere* (Off. i. 26), *one who observes these precepts may live nobly.*

Complementary Infinitive.

271. The infinitive, without a subject, is used with verbs which imply *another action of the same subject* to complete their meaning:<sup>1</sup> as,

*hoc quoque dicere* (Cat. M. 10), *this I can say.*

*mitto quaerere* (Rosc. Am.), *I omit to ask.*

*verecor laudare praesentem* (N. D. i. 21), *I fear to praise in one's own presence.*

*oro ut matures venire* (Att. iv. 1), *pray make haste to come.*

<sup>1</sup> The mark of this construction is that no Subject of these infinitives is in general admissible or conceivable; though the same verbs, in other senses, and rarely also by analogy in the same sense, may take an infinitive with a subject.

NOTE. — Such are verbs denoting *to be able, dare, undertake, remember, forget, be accustomed, begin, continue, cease, hesitate, learn, know how, fear*, and (in general) verbs which have another action of the same subject closely connected with them.

a. The infinitive is used optionally with many verbs which also take a Subjunctive Clause. Such are those signifying *willingness, necessity, propriety, resolve, command, prohibition, effort*, and the like: <sup>1</sup> as,

quos tueri debent deserunt (Off. i. 9), *they forsake those whom they should protect.*

student excellere (Off. i. 32), *they aim to excel.*

istum exheredare in animo habebat (Rosc. Am. 18), *he had it in mind to deprive him of the inheritance.*

cupio me esse clementem [= cupio esse clemens] (Cat. i. 2), *I desire to be merciful.*

b. Some verbs of these classes — *jubeo* and *veto* regularly — may take the infinitive with another subject: <sup>2</sup> as,

signa inferri jubet (Liv. xlii. 59), *he orders the standards to be advanced.*

#### Subject-Accusative.

272. The infinitive, with subject accusative, is used with verbs and other expressions of Knowing, Thinking, Telling, and Perceiving: <sup>3</sup> as,

dicat montem ab hostibus teneri (B. G. i. 22), *he says that the hill is held by the enemy* [direct, *mons ab hostibus tenetur*].

REMARK. — The Infinitive Clause may be either — 1. the Direct Object of the verb: as, *Caesarem adesse nuntiavit*; 2. the Subject of the same verb in the passive: as, *Caesarem adesse nuntiatum est*; 3. the Predicate after some such phrase as *rumor est*, &c.: as, *rumor erat Caesarem adesse*. In the last case, it is sometimes called the Object of the Verbal Phrase *rumor erat*.

<sup>1</sup> The subject is usually, though not always, omitted, when it is the same as that of the principal verb.

<sup>2</sup> This construction, though in many cases different from the two preceding, shades off imperceptibly into them. In none of the uses is the infinitive strictly Subject or Object; but its meaning is developed from the original one of *purpose*. Hence the distinction between the uses is not always clearly marked.

<sup>3</sup> The Infinitive may thus represent, in *indirect discourse*, a finite verb in *direct discourse*, admitting all the variations of the verb except number and person (see Chap. V.).

a. With verbs which govern the dative, the subject of the action may be in the dative. With *licet* regularly, and with others rarely, the predicate may also be in the dative : as,

*non libet mihi deplorare vitam* (Cat. M. 23), *I have no desire to bewail life.*

*mihi negligenti esse non licet* (Att. i. 17), *I must not be negligent* (also *negligentem*, and regularly so where the subject is indefinite).

*non est stantibus omnibus necesse dicere* (Marc. 11), *it is not necessary for all to speak standing.*

b. When the subject of the infinitive is not expressed, a predicate noun or adjective takes the case of the subject of the leading verb. This is rarely found (by a Greek idiom) even in Indirect Discourse : as,

*vir bonus et sapiens ait esse paratus* (Hor. Ep. i. 7), *a good and wise man says he is prepared, &c.*

*sensit medios delapsus in hostes* (Æn. ii. 377), *he found himself fallen among the foe.*

#### Purpose.

273. In a few cases, the Infinitive retains its original meaning of Purpose : viz.

a. With *habeo*, *do*, *ministro*, in isolated passages : as,

*tantum habeo polliceri* (Fam. i. 5), *so much I have to promise.* [Here the more formal construction would be *quod pollicear*.]

b. The Infinitive is found after *paratus*, *suetus* (used as adjectives), and their compounds : as,

*id quod parati sunt facere* (Quin. 2), *which they are ready to do.*

c. In poetry and later writers almost any verb may have the infinitive, after the analogy of verbs of simpler meaning that take it in prose : as,

*furit te reperire* (Hor. Od. i. 15), *he rages to find thee* (a forcible way of saying *cupit*).

d. Many adjectives take the Infinitive in poetry following a Greek idiom : as,

*durus componere versus* (Hor. Sat. i. 4), *harsh in composing verse.*  
*cantari dignus* (Ecl. v. 54), *worthy to be sung.*

REMARK. — Rarely, in poetry, the Infinitive is used to denote Result.

**274.** The Infinitive, with subject-accusative,<sup>1</sup> may be used in Exclamations (compare 240. *d*): as,

*mene incepto desistere victam* (*Æn.* i. 37), *what! I desist beaten from my purpose?*

*te in tantas aerumnas propter me incidisse* (*Fam.* xiv. 1), *alas! that you should fall into such grief for me.*

#### Historical Infinitive.

**275.** The Infinitive is often used for the tenses of the Indicative in narration, and takes a subject in the nominative: as,

*tum Catilina polliceri novas tabulas* (*Sall. Cat.* 21), *then Catiline promised abolition of debts* [clean ledgers].

*ego instare ut mihi responderet* (*Verr.* ii. 77), *I kept urging him to answer.*

REMARK. — This usage is most frequent where many verbs are crowded together in rapid narrative: as,

*pars cedere, alii insequi; neque signa neque ordines servare; ubi quemque periculum ceperat, ibi resistere ac propulsare; arma, tela, equi, viri, hostes atque cives permixti; nihil consilio neque imperio agi; fors omnia regere* (*Jug.* 51), *a part give way, others press on; they hold neither to standards nor ranks; where danger overtook, there each would stand and fight; arms, weapons, horses, men, foe and friend, mingled in confusion; nothing went by counsel or command; chance ruled all.*

#### TENSES.

NOTE. — The number of possible Tenses, in the ordinary meaning of the word, is very great. For in each of the three times, Present, Past, and Future, an action may be represented as going on, completed, or beginning; as habitual or isolated; as defined in time or indefinite (*aoristic*); as absolute or relative to some other time; or the past and future times may be near or remote. Thus a possible scheme of thirty or more tenses might be devised.

But, in the development of forms, which always takes place gradually, no language finds occasion for more than a small part of these. The most obvious distinctions, according to our habits of thought, appear in the following scheme: —

1. DEFINITE (fixing the time of the action).			2. INDEFINITE.	
	Incomplete.	Complete.	Aoristic.	
PRESENT.	<i>a. I am writing.</i>	<i>δ. I have written.</i>	<i>η. I write.</i>	
PAST.	<i>β. I was writing.</i>	<i>ε. I had written.</i>	<i>θ. I wrote.</i>	
FUTURE.	<i>γ. I shall be writing.</i>	<i>ζ. I shall have written.</i>	<i>κ. I shall write.</i>	

<sup>1</sup> This Construction is elliptical; that is, the thought is quoted in Indirect Discourse, though no verb of Saying, &c., appears, or perhaps is thought of (as the French *dire que*).

This scheme does not, indeed, give all the distinctions in use; nor do most languages furnish forms for all of these. Most languages disregard some of these distinctions, and some make other distinctions not here given. The language from which Latin sprang had a Present tense to express  $\alpha$  and  $\eta$ , a Perfect to express  $\delta$ , an Aorist to express  $\theta$ , a Future to express  $\gamma$  and  $\kappa$ , and an Imperfect to express  $\beta$ . The Latin, however, confounded the Perfect and Aorist in a single form (*scripsi*), thus losing the distinction between  $\delta$  and  $\theta$ . The nature of this confusion may be seen by comparing *dixi*, *dicavi*, and *didici* (all Perfects derived from the same root *DIK*), with *ἔδειξα*, *adiksham*, *δέδειχα*, *dideξα*. Latin also developed other forms for  $\epsilon$  (*scripseram*) and  $\zeta$  (*scripsero*), giving six tenses, as seen in 115 (p. 62).

The line between these, moreover, is not a hard and fast one, nor is it precisely the line which we draw in English. Thus in many verbs, on account of a peculiarity of meaning, the form for  $\delta$  has the sense of  $\alpha$  or  $\eta$ , and the form for  $\epsilon$  the sense of  $\beta$ . Again, Latin often uses the form for  $\zeta$  to express  $\kappa$ , or even  $\gamma$ . Thus *novi* ("I have learned") is used for "I know;" *constitit* ("he had taken his position") for "he stood;" *cognovero* ("I shall have learned") for "I shall be aware." The idiomatic uses of the language are in all cases to be noticed.

#### Present.

†276. The Present denotes an action or state as *now existing*, as *incomplete*, or as *indefinite* (without reference to time): as, *T*

Senatus haec intellegit, consul videt, hic tamen vivit (Cat. i. 1), *the Senate knows this, the consul sees, yet this man lives.*

tu actionem instituis, ille aciem instruit (Mur. 9), *you arrange a case, he arrays an army.*

a. The Present, with expressions of duration of time, denotes an action continuing in the present, but begun in the past: as,

patimur jam multos annos (Verr. vi. 48), *we suffer now these many years* (the perfect would mean *we no longer suffer*).

anni sunt octo cum ista causa versatur (Clu. 30), *it is now eight years that this case has been in hand.*

b. The present sometimes denotes an action not completed at all, but only attempted (*Conative Present*): as,

decerno quinquaginta dierum supplicationes (Phil. xiv. 11), *I move for fifty days' thanksgiving.* [Senatus decrevit, *the senate ordained.*]

c. The present, especially in colloquial language, is sometimes used for the Future: as,

imusne sessum (De Or. iii. 5), *shall we take a seat?*



ecquid me adjuvas? (Clu. 26), *won't you give me a little help?*  
 in jus voco te. non eo. non is? (Pl. As. 480), *I summon you to the court. I won't go. You won't?*

(See also under *cum*, *antequam*, *dum*, Chap. V.)

d. The present in lively narrative is often used for the historical perfect (*Historical Present*): as,

affertur nuntius Syracusas; curritur ad praetorium; Cleomenes, quamquam nox erat, tamen in publico esse non audet; includit se domi (Verr. vi. 35), *the news is brought to Syracuse; they run to headquarters; Cleomenes, though it was night, does not venture to be abroad; he shuts himself up at home.*

e. The present is regularly used with *dum*, *while*, though the time referred to is past: as,

haec dum aguntur, interea Cleomenes jam ad Elori litus pervenerat (id.), *while this is going on, Cleomenes meanwhile had come down to the coast at Elorum.*

NOTE.—When the time referred to is emphatically *contrasted with some other* (usually in the sense *so long as*), the past tense must be used: as, *nec enim dum eram vobiscum animum meum videbatis* (Cat. M. 22). A few irregular cases of *dum* with past tenses also occur (compare the passages): as,

coorta est pugna, par dum constabant ordines (Liv. xxii. 47), *a conflict began, well matched as long as the ranks stood firm.*

dum oculos hostium certamen averterat (id. xxxii. 24), *while the struggle kept the eyes of the enemy turned away.*

dum unum adscendere gradum conatus est, venit in periculum (Mur. 27), *while he attempted to climb one step [in rank] he fell into danger.*

f. The present is regularly used of writers whose works are extant: as,

Epicurus vero ea dicit (Tusc. ii. 7), *but Epicurus says such things.*

apud illum Ulysses lamentatur in vulnere (id. 21), *in him [Sophocles] Ulysses bewails over his wound.*

### Imperfect.

277. The Imperfect denotes an action or a state continued or repeated in past time: as,

hunc audiebant antea (Man. 5), *they used to hear him before.*

Socrates ita censebat itaque disseruit (Tusc. i. 30), *Socrates thought so [habitually] and so he spoke [then].*

REMARK.—The imperfect represents a present transferred to past time; and hence has all the meanings derived from the continuance of the action which the present has, but referred to past time (see details

a. Hence the imperfect is used in Descriptions : as,

erant omnino itinera duo . . . mons altissimus impendebat (B. G. i. 6), *there were in all two ways . . . a very high mountain overhung.*

b. The imperfect sometimes denotes an action continuing in the past but begun at some previous time (cf. 276. a) : as,

copias quas diu comparabant (Fam. i. 13), *the forces which they had long been getting ready.*

c. The imperfect sometimes denotes an action merely begun or even intended, but never accomplished (compare 276. b) : as,

in exsilium eiciebam quem jam ingressum esse in bellum videbam (Cat. ii. 6), *was I sending (i.e. trying to send) into exile one who I saw had already gone into war ?*

hunc igitur diem sibi proponens Milo, cruentis manibus ad illa augusta centuriarum auspicia veniebat (Mil. 16), *was Milo coming (i.e. was it likely that he would come), &c. ?*

si licitum esset veniebant (Verr. vi. 49), *they were coming if it had been allowed.*

d. The imperfect is sometimes used to express a certain surprise at the *present* discovery of a fact already existing : as,

O tu quoque hic aderas, Phormio (Ter. Ph. v. 6), *O ! you are here too, Phormio.*

ehem pater mi, tu hic eras ? (Pl. id. v. 7), *what ! you here, father ?*

ah miser ! quanta laborabas Charybdi (Hor. Od. i. 27), *unhappy boy, what a whirlpool you are struggling in [and I never knew it] !*

e. The imperfect is often used in narration by the comic poets. where later writers would employ the perfect : as,

ad amicum Calliclem quoi rem aibat mandasse hic suam (Trin. 956), *to his friend Callicles, to whom, he said, he had intrusted his property.*

praesagibat animus frustra me ire quom exhibam domo (Aul. 222), *my mind mistrusted when I went from home that I went in vain.*

f. The imperfect Indicative, in apodosis *contrary to fact*, regularly refers to present time (see 308. b).

#### Future.

278. The Future denotes an action or state that will occur hereafter.

a. The Future sometimes has the force of an Imperative (see 269. f).

b. The Future requires to be expressed in subordinate clauses, where in English it is commonly expressed only in the principal clause : as,

cum aderit videbit, *when he is there he will see.*

sanabimur si volumus (Tusc. iii. 6), *we shall be healed if we wish.*

## The Tenses of Completed Action.

**279.** The Perfect *definite* denotes an action as now completed : the Perfect *historical*, as having taken place indefinitely in past time : as,

ut ego feci, qui Graecas litteras senex didici (C. M. 8), *as I have done, who have learned Greek in my old age.*

tantum bellum extrema hieme apparavit, ineunte vere suscepit, media aestate confecit (Man. 12), *so great a war he made ready for at the end of winter, undertook in early spring, and finished by midsummer.*

*a.* The perfect is sometimes used emphatically to denote that something no longer exists : as,

fuit ista quondam in hac re publica virtus (Cat. i. 1), *there was once such virtue in this commonwealth.*

habuit, non habet (Tusc. i. 36), *he had, he has no longer.*

*b.* The perfect is sometimes used of indefinite time in connection with a general present : as,

qui in compedibus corporis semper fuerunt, etiam cum soluti sunt tardius ingrediuntur (Tusc. i. 31), *they who have always been in fetters of the body, even when released move more slowly.*

This is especially common in Conditions.

*c.* The perfect is sometimes used of a general truth, especially with negations (*Gnomic Perfect*) : as,

qui studet contingere metam multa tulit fecitque (Hor. A. P. 412), *he who aims to reach the goal, first bears and does many things.*

non aeris acervus et auri deduxit corpore febres (id. Ep. i. 2), *the pile of brass and gold removes not fever from the frame.*

*d.* The perfect is often used in expressions containing or implying a *negation*, where in affirmation the imperfect would be preferred : as,

dicebat melius quam scripsit Hortensius (Or. 38), *Hortensius spoke better than he wrote.* [Here the negative is implied in the comparison : compare the use of *quisquam*, *ullus*, &c., and the French *ne* after comparatives and superlatives].

**REMARK.** — The Perfect and Pluperfect of a few verbs are equivalent to the Present and Imperfect of kindred verbs : *novi*, *I know* ; *odi* (*osus*), *I hate* ; *memini*, *I remember* ; *cognoveram*, *I knew* ; *venerat* (= *aderat*), *he was at hand* : as,

qui dies aestus maximos efficere consuevit (B. G. iv. 29), *which day generally makes the highest tides.*

cujus splendor obsolevit (Quinc. v. 18), *whose splendor is now out of date.*

Many other verbs are occasionally so used : as, *dum oculos certamen averterat* (= *tenebat*. Liv. xxxii. 24).

**280.** The Pluperfect is used to denote an action completed in time past; sometimes, also, repeated in indefinite time: as,

neque vero cum aliquid mandaverat confectum putabat (Cat. iii. 7),  
*for when he had given a thing in charge he did not look on it as done.*  
 quae si quando adepta est id quod ei fuerat concupitum, tum fert  
 alacritatem (Tusc. iv. 15), *if it [desire] ever has gained what it had  
 desired, then it produces joy.*

**281.** The Future Perfect denotes an action as completed in the future: as,

ut sementem feceris, ita metes (Or. ii. 65), *as you sow, so shall you  
 reap.*

REMARK. — The Future Perfect is used (as above) with much greater exactness in Latin than in English, and may even be used instead of the Future, from the fondness of the Latins for representing an action as completed: as,

quid inventum sit paulo post videro (Acad. ii. 24), *what has been  
 found out I will see presently.*

ego certe meum officium praestitero (B. G. iv. 5), *I at least will have  
 done my duty.*

#### **Epistolary Tenses.**

**282.** In Letters, the perfect (*historical*) or imperfect may be used for the present, and the pluperfect for past tenses, as if the letter were *dated* at the time it is supposed to be *received*: as,

neque tamen, cum haec scribebam, eram nescius quantis oneribus  
 premerere (Fam. v. 12), *nor while I write this am I ignorant under  
 what burdens you are weighed.*

ad tuas omnes [epistulas] rescripseram pridie (Att. ix. 10), *I [have]  
 answered all your letters yesterday.*

#### **Tenses of the Subjunctive.**

**283.** The tenses of the Subjunctive denote Absolute time only in Independent Clauses. In these the Present always refers to *future time*; the Imperfect to either *past* or *present*; the Perfect to either *future* or *past*; the Pluperfect always to *past*.

**284.** In Dependent Clauses, the tenses of the Subjunctive denote Relative time, not with reference to the speaker, but *to the time of some other verb*.

## Sequence of Tenses.

**285.** The forms which denote Absolute time may be used in any connection. But those denoting Relative time follow special rules for the Sequence of Tenses. For this purpose, tenses are divided into two classes —

1. PRIMARY, including the Present, both Futures, and the Perfect (*definite*).

2. SECONDARY, including the Imperfect, the Perfect (*historical*), and the Pluperfect.

**286.** In compound sentences, a Primary tense in the leading clause is followed by a Primary tense in the dependent clause ; and a Secondary tense is followed by a Secondary : as,

*scribit ut nos moneat, he writes to warn us.*

*scribet ut nos moneat, he will write to warn us.*

*scribe (scribito) ut nos moneas, write that you may warn us.*

*scripsit ut nos moneret, he wrote to warn us.*

*scribit quasi oblitus sit, he writes as if he had forgotten.*

*scripsit quasi oblitus esset, he wrote as if he had forgotten.*

*rogo quid facturus sis, I ask what you are going to do.*

REMARK. — The Rule appears in the following Diagram : —

## TENSES OF THE SUBJUNCTIVE.

	Primary.	Secondary.
1. Action not complete (time relatively <i>present</i> or <i>future</i> ). }	PRESENT.	IMPERFECT.
2. Action complete (time relatively <i>past</i> ). }	PERFECT.	PLUPERFECT.

In applying the rule for the Sequence of Tenses, consider (1) whether the leading verb is *primary* or *secondary* ; (2) whether the dependent verb is required to denote *complete* action (i.e. relatively *past*), or *incomplete* (relatively *present* or *future*). By taking the corresponding tense, as given above, the correct usage will usually be found.

Notice that the FUTURE PERFECT denotes relatively *completed* action, and hence is represented in the Subjunctive by the PERFECT or PLUPERFECT.

**287.** In the Sequence of Tenses, the following points are to be observed : —

a. The perfect *definite* is properly a primary tense ; but, as its action is (at least) commenced in past time, it is more commonly followed by secondary tenses : as,

ut satis **esset** praesidii provisum est (Cat. ii. 12), *provision has been made that there should be ample guard.*

adduxi hominem in quo satisfacere exteris nationibus **possetis** (Verr. i. 1), *I have brought a man in whose person you can make satisfaction to foreign nations.*

tantum **profecisse** videmur ut a Graecis ne verborum quidem copia **vinceremur** (Cic.), *we seem to have advanced so far that even in fullness of words we are not surpassed by the Greeks.*

b. The perfect subjunctive is regularly used to denote any past action (either as Perfect *definite* or *historical*) depending on a verb in a primary tense : as,

ex epistulis intellegi licet quam frequens **fuerit** Platonis auditor (Or. 4), *it may be understood from his letters how constant a hearer he was of Plato.*

c. In clauses of Result, the perfect subjunctive is very often (the present rarely) used after secondary tenses : as,

Hortensius ardebat dicendi cupiditate sic ut in nullo unquam flagrantius studium **viderim** (Brut. 88), *Hortensius was so hot with desire of speaking that I have never seen a more burning ardor in any man.*

Sicilia Verres per triennium ita vexavit ac perdidit, ut ea restitui in antiquum statum nullo modo **possit** (Verr. i. 4), *for three years Verres so racked and ruined Sicily, that she can in no way be restored to her former state.* [Here the present is used in describing a state of things actually existing.]

REMARK. — This construction gives more emphasis to the fact stated as a result ; while the regular one gives more prominence to the main clause. The perfect, thus used, can stand only for a *perfect* indicative, not an *imperfect* ; and, in general, the perfect is often represented by the perfect subjunctive, contrary to the general rule : as,

Thorius erat ita non superstitiosus ut illa plurima in sua patria et sacrificia et fana **contemneret** ; ita non timidus ad mortem ut in acie **sit** ob rem publicam **interfectus** (Fin. ii. 20), *Thorius was so little superstitious that he despised [contemnebat] the many sacrifices and shrines in his country, so little timorous about death that he was killed [interfectus est] in battle, in defence of the State.*

Zeno nullo modo is erat qui nervos virtutis **inciderit** [compare 279, d] ; sed contra qui omnia in una virtute **poneret** (Acad. i. 10), *Zeno was noway one to cut the sinews of virtue ; but one, on the contrary, who made everything depend on virtue alone.*

d. A general truth after a past tense follows the connection of tenses in Latin (though not usually in English) : as,

ex his quae tribuisset sibi quam mutabilis **esset** reputabat (Q. C. iii. 9), *from what she [Fortune] had bestowed on him, he reflected how inconstant she is.*

ibi quantam vim ad stimulandos animos ira **haberet** apparuit (Liv. xxxiii. 37), *here it appeared what power anger has to goad the mind.*

e. The historical present may be followed by either primary or secondary tenses, but more commonly by secondary: as,

rogat ut **curet** quod dixisset (Quinct. 5), *he asks him to attend to the thing he had spoken of.*

castella communit quo facilius prohiberi **possent** (B. G. i. 8), *he strengthens the forts that they might be more easily kept off.*

f. When the secondary tenses of the subjunctive are used in protasis and apodosis, they may stand after any tense: as,

quia tale sit, ut vel si **ignorarent** id homines, etc. (Fin. ii. 15), *because it is such that even if men were ignorant, &c.*

g. The imperfect subjunctive, in protasis or apodosis, though referring to present time, is regularly followed by secondary tenses: as,

si solos eos diceret miseros quibus moriendum **esset**, neminem exciperet (Tusc. i. 5), *if you called only those wretched who must die, you would except no one.*

h. After the present, when a past tense appears to be in the writer's thought, secondary tenses sometimes follow by a kind of *Synesis*: as,

sed tamen ut **scires** haec tibi scribo (Fam. xiii. 47), *but yet that you may know, I write thus* [as if Epistolary Imperfect].

cujus praecepti tanta vis est ut ea non homini cuiquam sed Delphico deo **tribueretur** (Leg. i. 22), *such is the force of this precept, that it was ascribed not to any man, but to the Delphic god* [the precept was an old one].

#### Tenses of the Infinitive.

**288.** The tenses of the Infinitive are present, past, or future, relatively to the time of the verb on which they depend: as,

nostros non esse inferiores intellexit (B. G. ii. 8), *he ascertained that our men were not inferior.*

quam Juno fertur terris magis omnibus coluisse (Æn. i. 15), *which Juno, 'tis said, cherished above all lands.*

sperant se maximum fructum esse capturos (Lael. 21), *they hope they shall receive the greatest advantage.*

a. The present infinitive, after certain verbs in the past, must be rendered by the perfect infinitive in English: as,

scire potuit (Milo, 17), *he might have known.*

qui videbatur omnino mori non debuisse (Arch. 8), *who seemed [one that] ought not to have died at all.*

REMARK. — This is most frequent with verbs of necessity, propriety, and possibility (*potui, debui, oportuit*).

b. The perfect infinitive represents in Indirect Discourse any past tense of a finite mood. But the imperfect is sometimes represented by the present infinitive, — regularly after *memini* where the memory recalls the *action*, but not where it recalls the *mere fact*:<sup>1</sup> as,

*quis potest credere senatum putasse* (Mil. 5), *who can believe the Senate thought?* [Dir. disc. *putabat*].

*memini Catonem mecum disserere* (Lael. 3), *I remember Cato's discoursing with me* (so *dicere aiebat*, De Or. ii. 3).

*meministis me ita distribuisse causam* (Rosc. Am. 42), *you remember that I so laid out the case.*

c. Except in indirect discourse the present infinitive only is generally used, with no distinct reference to time:

*est adulescentis majores natu vereri* (Off. i. 34), *it is the duty of the young to reverence their elders.*

d. After verbs of *wishing, necessity*, and the like, the perfect passive infinitive is often used instead of the present: as,

*domestica cura te levatum [esse] volo* (Q. F. iii. 9), *I wish you relieved of household care* (compare *I pray thee have me excused*).

*quod jampridem factum esse oportuit* (Cat. i. 2), *which ought to have been done long ago* (compare *a*).

REMARK. — In early Latin, and in Poetry, the perfect active is also used, and even after other verbs than those of wishing: as,

*commisisse cavet* (Hor. A. P. 168), *he is cautious of doing.*

*haud equidem premendo alium me extulisse velim* (Liv. xxii. 59), *I would not by crushing another exalt myself.*

*sunt qui nolint tetigisse* (Hor. Sat. i. 2), *there are those who would not touch.*

*nollem dixisse* (Verr. v. 20), *I would not say.*

e. The perfect infinitive is used, especially by poets, to denote a completed action after verbs of Feeling; also with *satis est, satis habeo, melius est, contentus sum*, and in a few other cases where this distinction is important: as,

*quiesce erit melius* (Liv. iii. 48), *it will be better to have kept quiet.*

*non paenitebat intercedinem scribendi fecisse* (Fam. xvi. 21), *I was not sorry to have made a respite of writing.*

*pudet me . . . non praestitisse* (id. xiv. 3), *I am ashamed not to have shown.*

<sup>1</sup> Compare Goodwin's Gr. Grammar, 203, N. 1.



sunt quos curriculo pulverem Olympicum collegisse juvat (Hor. Od. i. 1), *there are those who delight, &c.*

nil ego si peccem possum nescisse (Ov. Her. xvii. 47), *if I go wrong, I cannot have done it in ignorance.*

*f.* The future infinitive is often expressed by *fore* (or *futurum esse*) *ut* — necessarily, where there is no supine stem : as,

spero fore ut contingat id nobis (Tusc. i.), *I hope that will be our happy lot.* [But, *sperat se posse* (Mil. 12).]

## II. — Noun and Adjective Forms.

THE several Noun and Adjective forms associated with the Verb are employed as follows : —

1. PARTICIPLES :	{	<i>a.</i> Present and Perfect	{ Simple Predicate. Periphrastic Perfect (passive). Predicate of Circumstance. Descriptive (Indirect Discourse).
		<i>b.</i> Future	{ Periphrastic with <i>esse</i> . Periphrastic with <i>fui</i> (= Pluperfect Subj.).
2. GERUND OR GERUNDIVE :	{	<i>c.</i> Gerundive	{ as Descriptive Adjective. Periphrastic with <i>esse</i> . of Purpose with certain verbs.
		<i>a.</i> Genitive as Objective Genitive.	
		<i>b.</i> Dative, with Adjectives (of Fitness), Nouns, Verbs.	
		<i>c.</i> Accusative, with certain Prepositions.	
3. SUPINE :	{	<i>d.</i> Ablative, of Means, Comparison, or with Prepositions.	
		<i>a.</i> Former Supine (in <i>um</i> ), with Verbs of Motion.	
		<i>b.</i> Latter Supine (in <i>u</i> ), chiefly with Adjectives.	

### PARTICIPLES.

289. The Participle expresses the action of the verb in the form of an Adjective ; but has a partial distinction of tense, and generally governs the case of its verb.

#### Distinctions of Tense.

290. The Present participle denotes the action as *not completed*; the Perfect as *completed*; the Future as *still to take place*.

*a.* The Present participle has several of the irregular uses of the present indicative (compare 276. *b.*, *c.*).

quaerenti mihi jamdiu certa res nulla veniebat in mentem (Fam. iv. 13), *though I had long sought, no certain thing came to my mind.*

*C.* Flaminio restitit agrum Picentem dividenti (Cat. M. 4), *he resisted Flaminius when attempting to divide, &c.*

iens in Pompeianum bene mane haec scripsi (Att. iv. 9), *I write this when about going very early to my place at Pompeii.*

*b.* The Perfect participle of a few deponent verbs is used nearly in the sense of a Present. Such are, regularly, *ratus*, *solitus*, *veritus*; commonly, *fiſus*, *auſus*, *ſecutus*, and occasionally others, eſpecially in later writers : as,

*cohortatus milites docuit* (B. C. iii. 80), *encouraging the men, he ſhewed, &c.*

*iratus dixiſti* (Mur. 30), *you ſpoke in a paſſion.*

*oblitus auſpicia* (Phil. i. 13), *forgetting the auſpices.*

*inſidias veritus* (B. G. ii. 11), *fearing ambuſcade.*

*imperio potitus* (Liv. xxi. 2), *holding the command.*

*ad pugnam congreſſi* (id. iv. 10), *meeting in fight.*

*rem incredibilem rati* (Sall. C. 48), *thinking it incredible.*

*c.* The preſent participle, wanting in the Paſſive, is uſually ſupplied by a clause with *dum* or *cum*; rarely by the participle in *dus* : as,

*Dic, hoſpes, Spartae, nos te hic viſiſſe jacentes,*

*Dum ſanctis patriae legibus obſequimur.*

*Tell it, ſtranger, at Sparta, that we lie here obedient to our country's ſacred laws.* [Here *dum obſequimur* is a tranſlation of the Greek *πειθόμενοι*.]

*crucibus adfixi aut flammandi* (Ann. xv. 44), *crucified or ſet on fire (in flames : compare note 3 under 296).*

*d.* The perfect active participle (which was loſt in Latin except in deponents) is ſupplied either by the Ablative Absolute with change of voice (255, Note), or by a clause with *cum* or *dum*. The perfect participle of ſeveral deponents may be either active or paſſive (ſee 135. *b*).

#### Adjective Use.

**291.** The preſent and perfect participles are uſed ſometimes as attributes, nearly like adjectives : as,

*cum antiquiſſimam ſententiam tum comprobata* (Div. i. 5), *a view at once moſt ancient and approved.*

*ſigna nunquam fere ementientia* (id. 9), *ſigns hardly ever deceitful.*

*auſpiciis utuntur coactis* (id. 15), *they uſe forced auſpices.*

*a.* Participles often become complete adjectives, and may be compared as ſuch, or uſed, like other adjectives, as nouns : as,

*sibi indulgentes et corpori deſervientes* (Leg. i. 13), *the ſelf-indulgent, and ſlaves to the body.*

*recte facta paria eſſe debent* (Par. iii. 1), *right deeds ought to be like in value* (ſee 207. *c*).

*male parta male dilabuntur* (Phil. ii. 27), *ill got, ill ſpent.*

*conſuetudo valentis* (De Or. ii. 44), *the habit of a man in health.*

*b.* A participle may, like a predicate adjective, be connected with a noun by *esse* or any similar verb: as,

Gallia est omnis divisa (B. G. i. 1), *all Gaul is divided.*

locus qui nunc saeptus est (Liv. i. 8), *the place which is now enclosed.*

videtis ut senectus sit operosa et semper agens aliquid et moliens (Cat. M. 8), *you see how busy old age is, always aiming and trying at something.*

REMARK. — From the predicate use arise the compound tenses of the passive, — the participle of *completed action* with the incomplete tenses of *esse* developing the idea of past time: as, *interfectus est*, *he was (or has been) killed*, lit., *he is having-been-killed* [i.e., *already slain*]. In the best writers (as Cicero), the perfect participle, when used with *ful*, &c., retains its proper force; but in later writers the two sets of tenses (as, *amatus sum* or *ful*) are often used indiscriminately to form periphrastic tenses in the passive: as,

[leges] cum quae latae sunt tum vero quae promulgatae fuerunt (Sest. 25), *the laws, both those which were proposed, and those which were published.* [The proposal of the laws was a single act: hence *latae sunt* is a pure perfect. The publishing, or posting, was a continued state, which is indicated by *promulgatae*, and *fuerunt* is the pure perfect.]

arma quae fixa in parietibus fuerant, humi inventa sunt (Div. i. 34), *the arms which had been fastened on the walls were found upon the ground.* [Compare *occupati sunt et fuerunt* (Off. i. 17): the difference between this and the preceding is, that *occupatus* can be used only as an adjective.]

#### Predicate Use.

292. The Present and Perfect participles are often used as a predicate, where in English a clause would be used to express *time, cause, occasion, condition, concession, characteristic, manner, circumstance*: as,

vereor ne turpe sit dicere incipientem (Mil. 1), *I fear it may be a dishonor [to me] when beginning to speak.*

salutem insperantibus reddidisti (Marc. 7), *you have restored a safety which we did not hope.*

nemo ei neganti non credidisset (Mil. 19), *no one would have disbelieved him when he denied.*

REMARK — This use is especially frequent in the Ablative Absolute. A co-ordinate clause is sometimes compressed into a perfect participle; and a participle with a negative expresses the same idea which in English is given by *WITHOUT*: as,

imprudenter nostris (B. G. v. 15), *while our men were not looking.*

miserum est nihil proficientem angere (N. D. iii. 5), *it is wretched to vex one's self without effecting anything.*

*instructos ordines in locum aequum deducit* (Sall. C. 59), *he draws up the lines, and leads them to level ground.*

*ut hos transductos necaret* (B. G. v. 5), *that he might carry them over and put them to death.*

a. A noun and passive participle are often so united that the participle and not the noun contains the main idea : <sup>1</sup> as,

*ante conditam condendamve urbem* (Liv. Pref.), *before the city was built or building.*

*illi libertatem civium Romanorum imminutam non tulerunt ; vos vitam ereptam negligetis* (Manil. 5), *they did not endure the infringement of the citizens' liberty ; will you disregard the destruction of their life ?*

b. The participle with a noun in agreement, or in the neuter as an abstract noun, is used in the ablative with *opus* (*need*) : as,

*opus est viatico facto* (Plaut. Trin.), *there is need of laying in provision.*  
*maturato opus est* (Liv. viii. 13), *there is need of haste.*

c. The perfect participle with *habeo* (rarely with other verbs) is almost the same in meaning as a perfect active, but denotes the *continued effect* of the verb : <sup>2</sup> as,

*fidem quem habent spectatam jam et diu cognitam* (Div. C. 4), *my fidelity, which they have proved and long known.*

d. The perfect participle, with verbs of *effecting*, *effort*, or the like ; also with *volo* where *esse* may be understood, expresses more forcibly the idea of the verb : as,

*praefectos suos multi missos fecerunt* (Verr. iv. 58), *many discharged their officers.*

*hic transactum reddet omne* (Capt. 345), *he will get it all done.*

*me excusatum volo* (Verr. i. 40), *I wish to be excused* (compare *I pray thee have me excused*).

e. The present participle is sometimes nearly equivalent to an infinitive, but expresses the action more vividly after verbs of *sense*, also *facio*, *induco*, and the like used of authors : as,

*Xenophon facit Socratem disputantem* (N. D. i. 11), *Xenophon represents Socrates disputing.*

#### Future Participle.

293. The Future Participle (except *futurus* and *venturus*) is rarely used in simple agreement with a noun, except by later writers.

<sup>1</sup> Compare the participle in indirect discourse in Greek (G. 280) ; and the English, " 'Twas at the royal feast *for Persia won* " (Dryden), i. e. *for the conquest of Persia.*

<sup>2</sup> The perfect with *have*, in modern languages, has grown out of this use of *habeo*.

a. The future participle is chiefly used with **esse** in a periphrastic conjugation (see page 77) : as,

morere, Diagora, non enim in caelum adscensus es (Tusc. i. 46),  
*die, for you are not likely to rise to heaven.*

sperat adolescens diu se victurum (Cat. M. 19), *the young man hopes to live long.*

neque petiturus unquam consulatum videretur (Off. iii. 20), *and seemed unlikely ever to be a candidate for the consulship.*

b. By later writers the future participle is also used in simple agreement to express likelihood, purpose, or even an apodosis : as,

cum leo regem invasurus incurreret (Q. C. viii. 1), *when a lion rushed on to attack the king.*

rediit belli casum de integro tentaturus (Liv. xvii. 62), *he returned to try the chances of war anew.*

ausus est rem plus famae habituram (id. ii. 10), *he dared a thing which would have more repute.*

dispersos per agros milites equitibus invasuris (id. xxxi. 36), *while the horse were ready to attack the soldiers scattered through the fields* (a rare use of the Ablative Absolute).

c. With past tenses of **esse**, the future participle is often equivalent to the pluperfect subjunctive (see 308. d) : as,

conclave illud ubi erat mansurus si ire perrexisset (Div. i. 15), *that chamber where he would have stayed if he had persisted in going.*

quid facturi fuistis (Lig. 8), *what were you going to do?* [= *quid fecissetis* ; which would be logically followed by *si venissetis, &c.*].

#### Gerundive.

294. The Gerundive, in its participial or adjective use, denotes *necessity* or *propriety*.

NOTE. — The participle in **dus** has two distinct uses, viz., 1. the Predicate (participial or adjective) use, in which it is always *passive* ; 2. the Gerundive use (see 295), in which it is always *active* in meaning, having for its apparent Object the noun with which it agrees in form. In the latter, it is exactly equivalent to the Gerund — which is its neuter used impersonally — governing the noun as direct object.

a. The gerundive is sometimes used, like the present and perfect participles, in simple agreement with a noun : as,

fortem et conservandum virum (Mil. 38), *a brave man, and worthy to be preserved.*

b. The most frequent use of the gerundive is with **esse** in a second periphrastic conjugation (p. 77) : as,

non agitata res erit (Verr. vi. 70), *will not the thing have to be agitated?*

c. The neuter of the gerundive<sup>1</sup> is occasionally (chiefly in early Latin) used with the case of its verb. In this use it is regular with *utor*, *fruo*, &c., governing the ablative : as,

*agitandumst vigilias* (Pl. Tr. 869), *I have got to stand guard.*

*via quam nobis ingrediendum sit* (C. M. 2), *the way we have to enter.*

*utendum exercitationibus modicis* (id. 11), *we must use moderate exercise.*

*legibus parendum est*, *the laws must be obeyed.*

*juveni parandum, seni utendum est* (Sen. Ep. 36), *it is for the young to get, for the old to enjoy.*

d. The gerundive is used to denote Purpose after verbs signifying *to give, deliver, agree for, have, receive, undertake, demand* :<sup>2</sup> as,

*redemptor qui columnam illam conduxerat faciendam* (Div. ii. 21), *the contractor who had undertaken to make that column* [the regular construction with this class of verbs].

*aedem Castoris habuit tuendam* (Verr. ii. 50), *he had the temple of Castor to take care of.*

*naves atque onera diligenter adservanda curabat* (id. vi. 56), *he took care that the ships and cargoes should be kept.*

#### GERUND.

295. The Gerund is a verbal noun, governing the same case as its verb, but governed itself like a noun : as,

*ars bene disserendi et vera ac falsa dijudicandi* (De Or. ii. 38), *the art of discoursing well, and distinguishing the true and false.* [Here the verbal nouns *discoursing* and *distinguishing*, if used in the nominative, would be expressed by the infinitive *disserere* and *dijudicare*.]

REMARK. — The use of the Gerund, in the oblique cases, corresponds to the use of the Infinitive as Subject (see 273), its nominative form being found only in the impersonal use of the participle in *du*s.

296. When the Gerund would have an object in the accusative, the Gerundive<sup>3</sup> is generally used instead, agreeing with the noun, and in the case which the gerund would have had : as,

<sup>1</sup> Sometimes called Nominative of the Gerund. (Compare Greek verbal in *τέος*, G. 281.)

<sup>2</sup> Such verbs are *accipio*, *adnoto*, *attribuo*, *conduco*, *curo*, *denoto*, *deposco*, *do*, *divido*, *edico*, *edoceo*, *fero*, *habeo*, *loco*, *mando*, *obicio*, *permitto*, *peto*, *pono*, *praebeo*, *propono*, *relinquo*, *rogo*, *suscipio*, *trado*, *voveo*.

<sup>3</sup> The gerundive construction is probably the original one. The participle in *du*s seems to have had a present passive force as in *secundus* (from *sequor*),

paratiores ad omnia pericula subeunda (B. G. i. 5), *readier to undergo all dangers*. [Here *subeunda* agrees with *pericula*, which is itself governed by *ad*: the construction with the gerund would be, *ad subeundum pericula*; *ad* governing the gerund, and the gerund governing the accusative *pericula*.]

exercendae memoriae gratiā (Off. i. 15), *for the sake of training the memory*. [Here the gerund construction would be, *exercendi memoriam*.]

These forms may be seen in the following : —

GEN. consilium { urbem capiendi } *a design of taking the city.*  
                          { urbis capiendae }

DAT. dat operam { agros colendo } *he attended to tilling the fields.*  
                          { agris colendis }

ACC. veniunt ad { pacem petendum } *they come to seek peace.*  
                          { pacem petendam }

ABL. terit tempus { scribendo epistulas } *he spends time in writing letters.*  
                          { scribendis epistulis }

REMARK. — The verbs *utor*, *fruor*, &c., are treated like verbs governing the Accusative, as they do in early Latin: as,

expetuntur divitiae ad perfruendas voluptates (Off. i. 8), *riches are sought for the enjoyment of pleasure.*

#### Gerundive Constructions.

**297.** The Gerund and the Gerundive are used, in the oblique cases, in some of the constructions of nouns.

**298.** The Genitive is used after nouns or adjectives in the constructions of the *objective genitive*; more rarely in the predicate after **esse**: as,

neque consilii habendi neque arma capiendi spatio dato (B. G. iv. 14), *time being given neither for forming plans nor for taking arms* [objective genitive after *spatio*].

ne conservandae quidem patriae causā (Off. i. 45), *not even in order to save the country.*

vivendi finis est optimus (Cat. M. 20), *it is the best end of life.*

non tam commutandarum rerum quam evertendarum cupidos (id. ii. 1), *desirous not so much of changing as of destroying the state.*

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*rotundus*, *volvenda dies* (Virg.), *flammandi* (Tac.), from which the idea of necessity was developed through that of futurity, as in the development of the subjunctive. *Consilium urbis delendae* would have meant a plan of a city being destroyed [in process of destruction], then about to be destroyed, then to be destroyed, then a plan of destroying the city, the two words becoming fused together as in *ab urbe conditā*. The gerund is simply an impersonal use of the participle, in its original present sense, retaining the case of its verb, the same as in *agitandum est vigiliis*; *quid opus est facto*?

REMARK. — In the predicate use of the genitive, it nearly or quite acquires the meaning of Purpose : as,

quae res vertendae reipublicae solent esse (Verr. iii. 53), *which things generally tend to the overthrow of the commonwealth.*

si arborum trunci deiciendi operis essent missae (B. G. iv. 17), *in case trunks of trees should be sent down [with the object] of setting the work adrift.*

cognoscendae antiquitatis (Tac. Ann. ii. 59), *to study old times.*

a. The genitive of the Gerund is, in a few cases, used (like a noun) with the genitive of an object agreeing neither in gender nor number : as,

ejus videndi cupidus (Ter. Hec.), *eager to see her.*

reiiciendi trium judicum potestas (Inv. ii. 2), *the power of challenging three jurors.*

sui colligendi facultas (B. G. iii. 6), *the opportunity to recover themselves.* [Here *sui*, though referring to a plural subject, is really the genitive singular neuter of *suus*.]

b. In the genitive of gerundive constructions the Gerund and Gerundive are about equally common.

299. The Dative is used after the adjectives (and rarely nouns) which are followed by the dative of nouns : as,

genus armorum aptum tegendis corporibus (Liv. xxxii. 10), *a sort of armor suited to the defence of the body.*

te sociam studeo scribendis versibus esse (Lucr. i. 25), *I desire that thou (Venus) be my partner in writing verses.*

a. The dative is used also in a few expressions after verbs : as,

reliqua tempora demetiendis fructibus et percipiendis accommodata sunt (Cat. M. 19), *the other seasons are fitted to reap and gather in the harvest.*

diem praestitit operi faciendo (Verr. ii. 56), *he appointed a day for doing the work.*

praeesse agro colendo (Rosc. Am. 18), *to take charge of tillage.*

esse solvendo, *to be able to pay.*

b. The dative is also used in certain phrases belonging to the civil law, after nouns meaning *officers, offices, elections, &c.* : as,

comitia consulibus rogandis (Div. i. 17), *elections for nominating consuls.*

triumvirum coloniis deducundis (Jug. 42), *a triumvir for planting colonies.*



300. The Accusative is used after the prepositions *ad*, *inter*, *circa*, *ob* (rarely *in* and *ante*) ; most frequently after *ad*, denoting Purpose : as,

*vivis non ad deponendam sed ad confirmandam audaciam* (Cat. i. 2),  
*you live, not to put off, but to confirm your daring.*

*inter agendum* (Ecl. ix. 24), *while driving.*

*me vocas ad scribendum* (Or. 10), *you summon me to write.*

*nactus aditus ad ea conanda* (B. C. i. 31), *having found means to undertake these things.*

301. The Ablative is used to express Manner,<sup>1</sup> Means, or Instrument, and after Comparatives ; and after the prepositions *ab*, *de*, *ex*, *in*, and (rarely) *pro* and *cum* : as,

*multa pollicendo persuadet* (Jug. 46), *he persuades by large promises.*

*his ipsis legendis* (Cat. M. 7), *by reading these very things.*

*nullum officium referenda gratia magis necessarium est* (Off. i. 15),  
*no duty is more important than repaying favors.*

*in re gerenda versari* (Cat. M. 6), *to be employed in affairs.*

*Latine loquendo cuivis par* (Brut. 34), *equal to any man in speaking Latin.*

*nullis virtutis praeceptis tradendis* (Off. i. 2), *without delivering any precepts of virtue.*

*obscuram atque humilem conciendo ad se multitudinem* (Liv. i. 8),  
*calling to them a mean and obscure multitude.*

REMARK. — The gerund is occasionally found in apposition with a noun : as,

*ad res diversissimas, parendum atque imperandum* (Livy, xxi. 3),  
*for the most widely different things obeying and commanding.*

#### SUPINE.

NOTE. — The supine is a verbal abstract of the fourth declension, having no distinction of tense or person, and is limited to two uses. The form in *um* is the accusative of the *end of motion*. The form in *u* is probably dative of *purpose*, though possibly the ablative has been confused with it.

302. The Former Supine (in *um*) is used after verbs of *motion* to express the purpose of the motion ; it governs the case of its verb : as,

<sup>1</sup> In this use the ablative of the gerund is, in later writers, nearly equivalent to a present participle. From the ablative of manner comes the Italian and Spanish form of the participle, the true participial form becoming an adjective.

quid est, imusne sessum? etsi monitum venimus te, non flagitatum (De Or. iii. 5), *how now, shall we be seated? though we have come to remind not to entreat you.*

nuptum collocasse (B. G. i. 18), *to establish in marriage.*

venerunt questum injurias (Liv. iii. 25), *they came to complain of wrongs.*

REMARK. — The supine in **um** is used especially after **eo**; and with the passive infinitive **iri** forms the future infinitive passive: as,

fuere cives qui rempublicam perditum irent (Sall. C. 36), *there were citizens who went about to ruin the republic* (compare 258. Rem.).

non Graiis servitum matribus ibo (Æn. ii. 786), *I shall not go to be a slave to the Grecian dames.*

si scisset se trucidatum iri (Div. ii. 9), *if he [Pompey] had known that he was going to be murdered.*

303. The latter Supine (in **u**)<sup>1</sup> is used only with a few adjectives, with the nouns *fas*, *nefas*, and *opus*, and rarely with verbs, to denote an action in reference to which the quality is asserted: as,

O rem non modo visu foedam, sed etiam auditu (Phil. ii. 25), *a thing not only shocking to see, but even to hear of.*

quaerunt quid optimum factu sit (Verr. ii. 27), *they ask what is best to do.*

humanum factu aut inceptu (Andr. 236), *a human thing to do or undertake.*

si hoc fas est dictu (Tusc. v. 13), *if this is lawful to say.*

pudet dictu (Agric. 32), *it is shame to tell.*

REMARK. — The supine in **u** is found especially with such adjectives as indicate an effect on the senses or the feelings, and those which denote *ease*, *difficulty*, and the like. But with *facilis*, *difficilis*, *jucundus*, the construction of **ad** with the gerund is more common. The Infinitive is often used in the same signification, by the poets, with all these adjectives.

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<sup>1</sup> The only latter supines in common use are *auditu*, *dictu*, *factu*, *inventu*, *memoratu*, *natu*, *visu*. In classic use it is found, in all, in twenty-four verbs. It is never followed by an object-case.

## Chapter IV. — Conditional Sentences.

NOTE. — The Conditional Sentence differs from other compound sentences in this, that the form of the main clause (APODOSIS) is determined in some degree by the nature of the subordinate clause (PROTASIS), upon the truth of which the whole statement depends. Like all compound sentences, however, it has arisen from putting together two independent statements, which in time became so closely united as to make one modified statement. Thus — *Speak the word: my servant shall be healed* is an earlier form of expression than *If thou speak the word*. The Conditional Particles were originally independent pronouns: thus *si* is a weak demonstrative of the same origin as *sic* (*si-ce* like *hi-ce*), and has the primitive meaning of *in that way*, or *in some way*. In its origin the Condition was of two kinds. Either it was assumed and stated *as a fact*, or it was expressed *as a mild command*. From the first have come all the uses of the Indicative in protasis; from the latter all the uses of the Subjunctive in protasis. The Apodosis has either the Indicative expressing the conclusion *as a fact*; and the Present and Perfect Subjunctive, expressing it originally *as future* — hence more or less *doubtful* — or the Imperfect and Pluperfect as *futurum in præterito*,<sup>1</sup> and so *unfulfilled* in the present or past. Thus *rides, majore cacinno concutitur* is the original form for the Indicative in protasis and apodosis; *si rides* only means “in some way or other,” &c. So *rogas Aristonem, neget* is the original form of the subjunctive in protasis and apodosis; *si rogas* would mean “ask in some way or other.” The imperfect *rogares* transfers the command to past time,<sup>2</sup> with the meaning “suppose you had asked,” and *si* would have the same meaning as before; while *negaret* transfers the future idea of *neget* to past time, and means “he was going to deny.” Now the stating of this supposition at all gives rise to the implication that it is *untrue in point of fact*, — because, if it were true, there would ordinarily be no need to state it as a supposition: it would then be a simple fact, put in the indicative.<sup>3</sup> Such a condition or

<sup>1</sup> The *futurum in præterito* is a tense *relatively future* to a time *absolutely past*, expressing a future act *transferred to the point of view of past time*, and hence is naturally expressed by a past tense of the Subjunctive: thus *dixisset = dicturus fuit*. As that which looks towards the future from some point in the past has a natural limit in present time, such a tense (imperfect subjunctive) came naturally to be used to express a present condition purely ideal, that is to say, *con'rary to fact*.

<sup>2</sup> Compare *potius diceret*, “he should rather have said” (266. e).

<sup>3</sup> There are, however, some cases in which this implication *does not arise*: as, *decies centena dedisses, nil erat in loculis* (Hor. Sat. i. 3, 15).

conclusion — originally past, meaning *suppose you had asked* [yesterday] *he was going to deny* — came to express an unfulfilled condition in the present; just as in English *ought*, which originally meant *owed*,<sup>1</sup> has come to express a present obligation.

Conditional Sentences may be classified as follows: —

1. SIMPLE PRESENT OR PAST CONDITIONS, nothing implied as to fulfilment:  
*Indicative, Present or Past.*
2. FUTURE CONDITIONS: { *a. More vivid (probable): Future Indicative.*  
                                  { *b. Less vivid (improbable): Present Subjunctive.*
3. CONDITIONS CONTRARY TO FACT: { *a. Present: Imperfect Subjunctive.*  
  { *b. Past: Pluperfect Subjunctive.*
4. GENERAL CONDITIONS: { *a. Indefinite: 2d person, Subjunctive.*  
                                  { *b. Repeated Action: Imperfect or Pluperfect with Indicative in Apodosis.*
5. IMPLIED CONDITIONS: { *a. Disguised* { *in clause of Fact, Wish, Command.*  
                                  { *in Participial Expression.*  
                                  { *b. Omitted* { *Potential Subjunctive.*  
  { *Subjunctive of Modesty.*

#### Protasis and Apodosis.

304. In a Conditional Sentence the clause containing the *condition* is called the PROTASIS; and that containing the *conclusion* is called the APODOSIS: as,

*si qui exire volunt* [PROTASIS] *convivere possum* [APODOSIS], (Cat. ii. 12),  
*if any wish to depart, I can keep my eyes shut.*

*a.* The Protasis is regularly introduced by the conditional particle *si* (IF) or one of its compounds.

NOTE. — These compounds are *sin*, *nisi*, *etiamsi*, *etsi*, *tametsi*, *tamenetsi* (see Conditional and Concessive Particles, 155. *d*, *f*). An Indefinite Relative, or any relative or concessive word, may also serve to introduce a conditional clause (see 316).

*b.* The Apodosis — except in some forms of General Condition — regularly corresponds in Mood with the Protasis: as,

*si mones audit*, *if you advise, he hears.*

*si monebis audiet*, *if you advise, he will hear.*

*si moneas audiat*, *if you should [hereafter] advise he would hear.*

*si moneres audiret*, *if you were now advising he would hear.*

*si monuisses audivisset*, *if you had [before] advised he would have heard.*

NOTE. — The apodosis is often introduced by some correlative word or phrase: as, *sic*, *ita*, *tum*, *et condicion.*, etc.

<sup>1</sup> "There was a certain lender which ought him five hundred pieces." — *Tyndale's N. T.*

c. The Apodosis, being the principal clause of its own sentence, may depend in form on the grammatical structure of the *main sentence*, and so require a Participle, an Infinitive, or a Phrase : as,

quod si praeterea nemo sequatur, tamen se cum sola decima legione iturum (B. G. i. 40), *but if no one else would follow, he would go with the tenth legion alone.*

si quos adversum proelium commoveret, hos reperire posse (id.), *if the loss of a battle alarmed any, they might find, &c.*

sepultura quoque prohibitori, ni rex humari jussisset (Q. C. viii. 2), *intending also to deprive him of burial, unless the king had ordered him to be interred.*

NOTE. — When the Apodosis is itself in Indirect Discourse, or in any dependent construction, the verb of the Protasis (as in the first two of the above examples) is always in the Subjunctive (see 337, p. 250).

d. A Particular Condition is one which refers to a definite act or series of acts occurring at some definite time ; a General Condition refers to any one of a class of acts which may occur (or may have occurred) at any time.<sup>1</sup>

#### Classification.

305. The principal or typical Forms of conditional sentences may be exhibited as follows : —

a. Simple Condition, nothing being implied as to fulfilment (INDICATIVE MOOD) : —

1. PRESENT : si adest bene est, *if he is [now] here it is well.*
2. PAST : si aderat bene erat, *if he was [then] here it was well.*

b. Future Condition, necessarily as yet unfulfilled : —

1. MORE VIVID (probable) : si aderit bene erit, *if he is [shall be] here it will be well.*
2. LESS VIVID (probable) : si adsit<sup>2</sup> bene sit, *if he should [hereafter] be here it would be well.*

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<sup>1</sup> These two classes of conditions are distinguished *logically* ; and in most languages are also distinguished *grammatically*, — but only as to Present and Past Conditions. In Latin, in *particular conditions*, present or past tenses of the Indicative are regularly used in Protasis, where no opinion is intimated of its truth or falsity ; and the Apodosis may take any form of the verb which can be used in an independent sentence. In *general conditions* (or at least what would be such in Greek), also, referring to Present or Past time, the Indicative is for the most part used both in Protasis and Apodosis. (Compare Goodwin's Greek Grammar, § 220.)

<sup>2</sup> Corresponding to the Greek Optative.

c. Condition contrary to fact, unfulfilled in present or past (imperfect and pluperfect SUBJUNCTIVE) : —

1. PRESENT. si adesset<sup>1</sup> bene esset, *if he were [now] here it would be well.*
2. PAST. si adfuisset<sup>2</sup> bene fuisset, *if he had [then] been here it would have been well.*

d. General condition : —

1. INDEFINITE. si hoc dicas<sup>3</sup> creditur, *if one says this it is [always] believed.*
2. REPEATED. si quid diceret<sup>4</sup> credebatur, *if [whenever] he said anything (= whatever he said) it was believed (a late use).*

REMARK. — The use of tenses in Protasis is very loose in English. Thus *if he is alive now* is a PRESENT condition, to be expressed in Latin by the Present Indicative; *if he is alive next year* is a FUTURE condition, and would be expressed by the Future Indicative. Again, *if he were here now* is a PRESENT condition contrary to fact, and would be expressed by the Imperfect Subjunctive; *if he were to see me thus* is a FUTURE condition, to be expressed by the Present Subjunctive; and so too, *if you advised him he would attend* may be future.

#### Simple Conditions.

306. In the statement of a condition *whose falsity is not implied*, the present and past tenses of the Indicative are used in Protasis; the apodosis expressing the result in any grammatical form required: as,

si tu exercitusque valetis, bene est (Fam. v. 2), *if you and the army are well it is well.*

si justitia vacat, in vitio est (Off. i. 19), *if justice be wanting it [bravery] is in fault.*

si placet . . . videamus (Cat. M. 5), *if you please, let us see.*

fuert hoc censoris, si judicabat (Div. i. 16), *grant that it was the censor's duty in case he judged it false.*

#### Future Conditions.

307. A Future condition may either, 1. make a *distinct supposition* of a future case, the apodosis expressing what *will be* the result; or, 2. the supposition may be less distinct and vivid, the apodosis expressing what *would be* the result in the case supposed.

<sup>1</sup> Corresponding to the Greek Imperfect (Indicative), with  $\alpha\nu$  in apodosis.

<sup>2</sup> Corresponding to the Greek Aorist (Indicative), with  $\alpha\nu$  in apodosis.

<sup>3</sup> Corresponding to the Greek Subjunctive with  $\alpha\nu$ .

<sup>4</sup> Corresponding to the Greek Optative.

a. If the condition is stated vividly, so as to be conceived as *actually about to take place* (English present indicative, rarely future with *SHALL*), the Future Indicative is used in both protasis and apodosis: as,

sanabimur si volemus (Tusc. iii. 6), *we shall be healed if we wish.*

quod si legere aut audire voletis . . . reperietis (Cat. M. 6), *if you read or hear, you will find.*

b. The present subjunctive, in both protasis and apodosis, expresses a future condition *less vividly*, or as *less probable*, than when the future indicative is used (English *SHOULD*): as,

haec si tecum patria loquatur, nonne impetrare debeat (Cat. i. 8), *if thy country should thus speak with thee, ought she not to prevail?*

quod si quis deus mihi largiatur . . . valde recusem (Cat. M. 23), *but if some god were to grant me this, I should stoutly refuse.*

REMARK.—The present subjunctive sometimes stands in protasis with the future in apodosis from a change in the point of view of the speaker.<sup>1</sup>

c. If the conditional act is regarded as *completed* before that of the apodosis begins, the Future Perfect is substituted for the *future*, and the Perfect subjunctive for the Present: as,

sin cum potuero, non venero, tum erit inimicus (Att. ix. 2), *but if I do not come when I can, he will be unfriendly.*

si non feceris, ignoscam (Fam. v. 19), *if you do not do it I will excuse you.*

REMARK.—This is a very common construction in Latin, owing to the tendency of the language to represent an action as *completed*, rather than as *in progress*.

d. Any form denoting or implying future time may stand in the apodosis of a future condition (so the participles in *du*s and *ru*s, and verbs of *necessity*, *possibility*, and the like): as,

non possum istum accusare si cupiam (Verr. v. 41), *I cannot accuse him if I should desire.*

alius finis constituendus est si prius quid maxime reprehendere Scipio solitus sit dixero (Lael. 16), *another limit must be set if I first state what Scipio was wont most to find fault with.*

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<sup>1</sup> It often depends entirely upon the view of the writer at the moment, and not upon the nature of the condition whether it shall be stated vividly or not; as in the proverbial "If the sky falls we shall catch larks," the impossible condition is ironically put in the vivid form, to illustrate the absurdity of some other supposed condition stated by some one else.

e. Rarely the perfect is used (rhetorically) in apodosis with a present or even future in protasis, representing the conclusion as *already accomplished*: as,

si hoc bene fixum in animo est, vicistis (Liv. xxi. 44), *if this is well fixed in your minds, you have conquered* [for you will have conquered].

si eundem [animum] habueritis, vicimus (id. 43), *if you shall have kept the same spirit, we have conquered*.

f. Frequently the present subjunctive of a future condition becomes imperfect by the sequence of tenses or some other cause (retaining the same force relatively to past time): as,

non poterat nisi vellet (B. C. iii. 44), *was not able unless he wished* (compare d, above).

Caesar si peteret . . . non quicquam proficeret (Hor. Sat. i. 3), *if even Caesar were to ask he would gain nothing*. [Here the construction is not contrary to fact, but is simply *si petat non proficiat*, thrown into past time.]

tumulus apparuit . . . si luce palam iretur hostis praevenitur erat (Liv. xxii. 24), *a hill appeared . . . if they should go openly by light the enemy would prevent*. [Independent of *apparuit*, this would be, *si catur, praevenitur est*, for *praeveniat*.]

#### Conditions Contrary to Fact.

308. In the statement of a supposition *known to be false*, the Imperfect and Pluperfect subjunctive are used,<sup>1</sup>—the imperfect referring to Present Time, the pluperfect to Past: as,

quae si exsequi nequirem, tamen me lectulus oblectaret meus (Cat. M. 11), *if I could not [now] follow this [an active life] yet my couch would afford me pleasure*.

nisi tu amisisses, nunquam recepissem (id. 4), *unless you had lost it, I should not have recovered it*.

si meum consilium auctoritasque valuisset, tu hodie egeres, nos liberi essemus, respublica non tot duces et exercitus amisisset (Phil. ii. 15), *if my judgment and authority had prevailed [as they did not], you would this day be a beggar, we should be free, and the republic would not have lost so many leaders and armies*.

qui nisi revertisset, in eo conclavi ei cubandum fuisset, quod proxima nocte conruit: ruina igitur oppressus esset; at id neque si fatum fuerat effugisset, nec si non fuerat in eum casum incidisset (Div. ii. 8), *if it had been decreed by fate, he would not have escaped, &c.* [The apodosis of *fuerat* is not *effugisset*, but the whole conditional sentence of which *effugisset* is the apodosis; the real protasis of *effugisset* is *revertisset*, above.]

<sup>1</sup> The implication of falsity, in this construction, is not inherent in the Subjunctive; but comes from the transfer of a future condition to past time. Thus the time for the happening of the condition has, at the time of writing, already



a. In many cases the imperfect refers to past time, both in protasis and apodosis, especially when a *repeated or continued action* is denoted, or when the condition *if true would still exist*: as,

hic si mentis *esset* suae, ausus *esset* educere exercitum (Pis. 21),  
*if he were of sane mind would he have dared to lead out the army?*  
 [Here *esset* denotes a continued state, past as well as present.]

non concidissent, nisi illud receptaculum classibus nostris *pateret*  
 (Verr. ii. 1), [the power of Carthage] *would not have fallen, unless*  
*that station had been open to our fleets* (without the condition, *patebat*).

REMARK. — This necessarily arises from the fact that the pluperfect is equivalent to a future perfect *in präterito*, and so represents the action as completed and *momentary*, rather than continuing.

b. The past tenses of the Indicative in apodosis (after a Subjunctive in protasis) may be used to express what *ought* to have been done, or is *intended*, or is already *begun* (see 311. c): as,

si Romae privatus *esset* hoc tempore, tamen is *erat* deligendus  
 (Manil. 17), *if he [Pompey] were at this time a private citizen in*  
*Rome, yet he ought to be appointed.*

quod esse caput *debebat* si probari posset (Fin. iv. 9), *what ought*  
*to be the main point if it could be proved.*

si licitum *esset* matres veniebant (Verr. vi. 49), *the mothers were*  
*coming if it had been allowed* (see 305. c<sup>2</sup>).

in amplexus filiae *ruebat*, nisi lictores obstitissent (Ann. xvi. 32),  
*he was about rushing into his daughter's arms, unless the lictors had*  
*opposed.*

REMARK. — In this use, the imperfect indicative corresponds in time to the imperfect subjunctive, and the perfect or pluperfect indicative to the pluperfect subjunctive. The tenses of the subjunctive may however be used as well (see Note, above): as,

satius *erat* (= *esset*), *it were better.*

c. The use of the indicative in apodosis is regular with all verbs and expressions denoting the *necessity, propriety, desirableness, duty, possibility*, of an action, where it is implied that what was necessary, &c., *has not been done*.<sup>1</sup> It is sometimes carried still further in poetry: as,

nam nos *decebat* lugere (Tusc. i. 47), *it would befit us to mourn.*

si non alium jactaret odorem, laurus *erat* (Georg. ii. 133), *it were a*  
*laurel, but for giving out a different odor.*

passed; so that, if the condition remains a *condition*, it must be contrary to fact. So past forms implying a future frequently take the place of the subjunctive in apodosis in this construction (see d, below, and head-note).

<sup>1</sup> Observe that all these expressions contain the idea of Futurity. Compare above.

d. The participle in *urus* with *fui* is nearly equivalent to a *pluperfect subjunctive*. Hence, when the Apodosis is itself a *dependent clause*, requiring the infinitive or subjunctive, a pluperfect subjunctive may be represented by the Future Participle with the proper form of *fui* (compare Indirect Discourse : 337).

*quid enim futurum fuit [= fuisset], si . . . (Liv. ii. 1), what would have happened if, &c.*

*neque ambigitur quin . . . id facturus fuerit, si . . . (id.), nor is there any question he would have done it if, &c. [dir. disc. fecisset].*

*ex quo intellegi potest quam acuti natura sint, qui haec sine doctrina credituri fuerint (Tusc. i. 21), hence it may be understood how keen they are by nature, who, without instruction, would have believed this. [Here the condition is contained in the words sine doctrina.]*

*adeo parata seditio fuit, ut Othonem rapturi fuerint, ni incerta noctis timuissent (Tac. H. i. 26), so far advanced was the conspiracy that they would have seized upon Otho, had they not feared the hazards of the night. [In the direct discourse, rapuissent ni timuissent.]*

#### General Conditions.

309. General conditions are distinguished in Latin in only two cases : viz.,

a. The subjunctive is used in the *second person singular*, to denote the act of an Indefinite Subject (*you = any one*). Here the Indicative of a *general truth* may stand in the apodosis : as,

*mens prope uti ferrum est : si exerceas conteritur ; nisi exerceas, rubiginem contrahit (Cato de Mor.), the mind is very like iron : if you use it, it wears away ; if you don't use it, it gathers rust.*

*virtutem necessario gloria, etiamsi tu id non agas, consequitur (Tusc. i. 38), glory necessarily follows virtue, even if that is not one's aim.*

*si prohibita impune transcenderis, neque metus ultra neque pudor est (Ann. iii. 54), if you once overstep the bounds with impunity, there is no fear nor shame any more.*

*si cederes placabilis (Tac. Ann.), [he was] easily appeased if one yielded.*

b. In later writers (not in Cicero), the imperfect and pluperfect subjunctive are used in protasis, with the imperfect indicative in apodosis, to state a Repeated or Customary action : as,

*accusatores, si facultas incideret, poenis adficiabantur (Ann. vi. 30), the accusers, whenever opportunity offered, were visited with punishment.*

c. In all other cases, general suppositions—including those introduced by Indefinite Relatives—take the Indicative.

NOTE.—In many sentences properly conditional, the subordinate member is not expressed as a *conditional clause* ; but is stated in some other form of words, or is implied in the nature of the thought.

## Condition Disguised.

310. The condition is often contained in some other form of words than a regular Protasis, in the same clause or sentence.

a. The condition may be contained in a Relative, Participial, or other qualifying clause : as,

facile me paterer — vel ipso quaerente, vel apud Cassianos iudices — pro Sex. Roscio dicere (Rosc. Am. 30), *I would readily allow myself to speak for Roscius, IF he, &c.*

non mihi, nisi admonito, venisset in mentem (De Or. ii. 42), *it would not have come into mind, unless [I had been] reminded [= nisi admonitus essem].*

nulla alia gens tanta mole cladis non obruta esset (Liv. xxii. 54), *there is no other people that would not have been crushed by such a weight of disaster [i.e. IF it had been any other people].*

nemo unquam, sine magna spe immortalitatis, se pro patria offerret ad mortem (Tusc. i. 15), *no one, without great hope of immortality, would ever expose himself to death for his country.*

quid hunc paucorum annorum accessio juvare potuisset (Lael. 3), *what good could the addition of a few years have done him [if he had had them] ?*

b. The condition may be contained in a Wish, or expressed as a Command, by the imperative or hortatory subjunctive : <sup>1</sup> as,

utinam quidem fuisset ! molestus nobis non esset (Fam. xii. 3), *I wish I had been [chief] : he would not now be troubling us [i.e. if I had been].*

roges enim Aristonem, neget (Fin. iv. 25), *for ask Aristo, he would deny.*  
tolle hanc opinionem, luctum sustuleris (Tusc. i. 13), *remove this notion, and you will have done away grief.*

naturam expellas furca, tamen usque recurret (Hor. Ep. i. 10), *drive out nature with a pitchfork, still she will ever return.*

manent ingenia senibus, modo permaneat studium et industria (Cat. M. 7), *old men keep their mental powers, only let them keep their zeal and diligence.*

c. Rarely, the condition is stated in an independent clause : as,  
rides : majore cachinno concutitur (Juv. iii. 100), *you laugh ; he shakes with louder laughter.*

de paupertate agitur : multi patientes pauperes commemorantur (Tusc. iii. 24), *we speak of poverty ; many patient poor are mentioned.*

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<sup>1</sup> This usage is probably the origin of the use of the subjunctive in Protasis ; the subjunctive being used first, as in 266, while the conditional particle is a form of an indefinite pronoun.

Condition Omitted.

**311.** The condition is often wholly omitted, but may be inferred from the course of the argument.

REMARK.—Under this head belong all the apparently independent uses of the subjunctive not mentioned in 265. *a*. In this use the perfect subjunctive is especially common, in the same sense as the present, referring to the *immediate future*; the imperfect to *past time* (not to *present*, as in 266. *e*).

*a*. The present and perfect subjunctive (often with *forsitan* or the like) are used to denote an action as Possible; also, the second person singular of all the tenses, denoting an act of an Indefinite Subject (*Potential Subjunctive*): as,

hic quaerat quispiam (N. D. ii. 53), *here some one may ask*.

ut aliquis fortasse dixerit (Off. iii. 6), *as one may perhaps say*.

forsitan haec illi mirentur (Verr. v. 56), *they may perchance marvel at these things*.

tum in lecto quoque videres susurros (Hor. Sat. ii. 8), *then on each couch you might hear whisperings*.

REMARK.—In this use the imperfect or pluperfect refers to past time.

*b*. The subjunctive is used in cautious, modest, or hypothetical statement (especially *velim*, etc., in polite wish,—*conjunctivus modestiae*): as,

pace tua dixerim (Mil. 38), *I would say by your leave*.

haud sciam an (De Or. i. 80), *I should incline to think*.

tu velim sic existimes (Fam. xii. 6), *I would like you to think so*.

vellem adesset M. Antonius (Phil. i. 7), *I wish Antony were here*.

[Here *vellem* implies an unfulfilled wish in present time; *volo*, *nolo*, are peremptory.]

haec erant fere quae tibi nota esse vellem (Fam. xii. 5), *this is about what I want you to know*. [Here *vellem* is simply *velim* transferred to past time on account of *erat* (epistolary), by connection of tenses, and does not imply an impossible wish.]

*c*. The Indicative of verbs signifying *necessity*, *propriety*, and the like, may be used in the apodosis of implied conditions, either future or contrary to fact: as,

longum est [sit] ea dicere, sed . . . (in Pison. 10), *it would be tedious to tell, &c.*

illud erat aptius, aequum cuique concedere (Fin. iv. 1), *it would be more fitting to yield each one his rights*.

ipsum enim expectare magnum fuit (Phil. ii. 40), *would it have been a great matter to wait for himself?*

quanto melius fuerat (Off. iii. 25), *how much better it would have been*.

quod contra decuit ab illo meum [corpus cremari] (Cat. M.), *whereas on the other hand mine ought to have been burnt by him*.

nam nos decebat domum lugere ubi esset aliquis in lucem editus (Tusc. i. 48), *for it were fitting to mourn the house where a man has been born* [but we do not].

nunc est bibendum . . . nunc Saliaribus ornare pulvinar deorum tempus erat dapibus sodales (Hor. Od. i. 37), i.e. *it would be time* [if it were for us to do it, but it is a public act].

REMARK. — Notice that, in this construction, the imperfect indicative refers to *present time*; the pluperfect to *simply past time*, like the perfect. Thus *oportebat* means *it ought to be* [now], *but is not*; *oportuerat* means *it ought to have been, but was not*.

d. The omission of the protasis often gives rise to mixed constructions : as,

peream male si non optimum erat (Hor. Sat. ii. 1), *may I perish if it would not be better*. [Here the protasis and apodosis come under 308. b. *Optimum erat* is itself an apodosis with the protasis omitted.]

quod si in hoc mundo fieri sine deo non potest, ne in sphaera quidem eosdem motus Archimedes sine divino ingenio potuisset imitari (Tusc. i. 25). [Here the protasis of *potuisset* is in *sine divino ingenio*, and the apodosis of *si potest* is the whole conditional statement which follows.]

#### Conditional Particles.

NOTE. — The conclusion is sometimes only implied, especially with particles of comparison.

312. The particles of Comparison — *tamquam*, *quasi*, *quam si*, *acsi*, *utsi*, *velutsi*, *veluti*, and poetic *ceu* — introduce conditional clauses, of which the conclusion is omitted or implied; and take the subjunctive.

REMARK. — Contrary to the English idiom, the *present and perfect subjunctive* are regularly used with these particles, except where the connection of tenses requires secondary tenses : as,

tamquam si claudus sim (Plaut. Asin. 2), *just as if I were lame* (i. e. just as it would be if I should be lame).

tamquam clausa sit Asia (Fam. xii. 9), *as if Asia were closed*.

quasi vero non specie visa judicentur (Acad. ii. 18), *as if forsooth visible things were not judged by their appearance*.

velut si coram adesset (B. G. i. 32), *as if he were present in person*.

similiter facis ac si me roges (N. S. iii. 3), *you do exactly as if you asked me*.

aeque ac si mea negotia essent (Fam. xiii. 43), *as much as if it were my own business*.

ceu cetera nusquam bella forent (Æn. ii. 438), *as if there were no fighting elsewhere*.

magis quam si domi esses (Att. vii. 4), *more than if you were at home*.

Concessive Particles.

313. The particles of Concession — *although, granting that* — sometimes take the subjunctive, but under various constructions: viz.,

a. **Quamvis** and **ut** (except in later writers) take the *hortatory* subjunctive (266).

quamvis ipsi infantes sint, tamen . . . (Or. 23), *however incapable themselves of speaking, yet, &c.*

ut neminem alium . . . rogasset (Mil. 17), *even if he had asked no other.*

b. **Licet** is properly a verb, and takes a substantive-clause with the subjunctive (331. c).

licet omnes in me terrores periculaque impendeant (Rosc. Am. 11), *though all terrors and perils should menace me.*

c. **Etsi** has the same constructions as **si** (305).

etsi abest maturitas (Fam. vi. 18), *though ripeness of age is wanting.*

etsi nihil aliud abstulissetis (Sull. 32), *even if you had taken away nothing else.*

d. **Cum** (concessive) has a special construction (326).

e. **Quamquam** takes the Indicative (unless otherwise required by the structure of the sentence): as,

omnibus — quamquam ruit ipse suis cladibus — pestem, vastitatem, cruciatum, tormenta denuntiat (Phil. xiv. 3), *though breaking down under his disasters, still he threatens all with destruction, plunder, misery, and torture.*

f. **Quamquam** more commonly introduces a proposition in the sense of *and yet*: as,

quamquam haec quidem jam tolerabilia videbantur, etsi, etc. (Mil. 28), *and yet these, in truth, it seemed might now be borne, though, &c.*

g. Of the concessive particles, the compounds of **si** are used in all the forms of protasis; **quamquam** regularly introduces only *conceded facts*, and hence takes the Indicative; **quamvis**, **quantum vis**, **quamlibet**, **ut**, **cum**, and **licet**, take idiomatic constructions, corresponding to their original meaning. Later writers, however, frequently use all these particles like the compounds of **si**, connecting them with the Indicative or Subjunctive according to the nature of the condition. Even Cicero occasionally uses **quamquam** with the Subjunctive: as,

quamquam ne id quidem suspicionem coitionis habuerit (Planc. 22), *though not even that raised any suspicion of a coalition.*

## Proviso.

**314.** A PROVISIO, introduced by *modo*, *dum*, *dummodo*, requires the Subjunctive: as,

valetudo modo bona sit (Brut. 16), *provided the health is good.*

modo ne sit ex pecudum genere (Off. i. 30), *provided [in pleasure] he be not of the herd of cattle.*

oderint dum metuant (Off. i. 28), *let them hate, if only they fear.*

dum de patris morte quaereretur (Rosc. Am. 41), *let the inquiry only be of a father's death.*

dummodo inter me atque te murus intersit (Cat. i. 5), *provided only the city wall is between us.*

NOTE.—The Subjunctive with **modo** is a hortatory Subjunctive; with **dum** and **dummodo**, a development from the Subjunctive in temporal clauses (compare colloquial “so long as”: see 266. d’).

Use of *Si* and its Compounds.

**315.** The use of some of the more common Conditional Particles may be stated as follows:—

*a.* **Si** is used for *affirmative*, **nisi** and **si non** for *negative* conditions. With **nisi**, the negative belongs rather to the Apodosis, — *i. e.* the conclusion is true except in the case supposed; with **si non**, the Protasis is negative, — *i. e.* the conclusion is *limited* to the case supposed. (The difference is often only one of emphasis.) **Nisi** is never used if the clause has a *concessive* force. **Ni** is an old form, reappearing in poets and later writers, and in a few conventional phrases. Sometimes **nisi si**, *except if*, *unless*, occurs: as,

noli putare me ad quemquam longiores epistulas scribere, nisi si quis ad me plura scripsit, cui puto rescribi oportere (Fam. xiv. 2), *don't suppose that I write anybody longer letters, except in case one writes more to me, and so I think he must be answered.*

*b.* **Nisi vero** and **nisi forte** — sometimes **nisi** alone — regularly introduce an *objection* or *exception*, ironically, and take the Indicative: as,

nisi forte volumus Epicureorum opinionem sequi (De Fato, 16), *unless to be sure we choose to follow the notion of the Epicureans.*

*c.* **Sive . . . sive** (**seu**) introduce conditions in the form of an *alternative*. They have no peculiar construction, but may be used with any kind of condition, or with different kinds in the two branches, often also without a verb: as,

nam illo loco libentissime soleo uti, sive quid mecum ipse cogito, sive quid aut scribo aut lego (De Leg. ii. 1), *for I enjoy myself most in that place, whether I am thinking by myself, or am either writing or reading.* [*Sive . . . seu* is late or poetic.]

Chapter V.—*Dependent Constructions.*I.—*Relative Clauses.*

The Relative, being in origin a weak demonstrative (or possibly, in some cases, an interrogative), may be used alike with the indicative and the subjunctive. A simple relative, merely introducing a descriptive fact, takes the Indicative, as any demonstrative would do. But the Subjunctive appears in many relative constructions, indicating a closer logical connection between the relative clause and the main clause. These constructions have grown up from the future meaning of the subjunctive, each with its own special development. In general they are of two kinds, not, however, very distinct in meaning: viz., 1. clauses where the implied logical connection is that of Purpose; 2. clauses which express more or less distinctly some Characteristic of the antecedent, of which the most frequent is the ordinary clause of Result. 3. Besides these, however, there are general relatives of Protasis; the indefinite relatives *whoever, whenever, &c.*, being regarded as conditional expressions, equivalent to, *if any one, if at any time, &c.*<sup>1</sup> This leads to the following scheme of dependent relative constructions:—

1. General Relatives of PROTASIS.
2. Relative Clauses of PURPOSE (*Final Clauses*).
3. Relative Clauses of CHARACTERISTIC, including—
  - a. Simple Result (Consecutive) Clauses.
  - b. Clauses of Characteristic (including *cause* and *hindrance*).
  - c. Clauses of Relative Time.

## Conditional Relative Clauses.

**316.** A clause introduced by an Indefinite Relative is treated as a Conditional clause, and may take any of the forms of Protasis: as,

quisquis huc venerit vapulabit (Pl. Am. 153), *whoever (= if any one) comes here he shall be thrashed.*

quaecumque causa vos huc attulisset, laetarer (De Or. ii. 4), *I should be glad, whatever cause had brought you here [i.e. if any other, as well as the one which did].*

philosophia, cui qui pareat, omne tempus aetatis sine molestia possit degere (Cat. M. 1), *philosophy, which if any one obeys, he will be able to spend his whole life without vexation.*

virtutem qui adeptus erit ubicunque erit gentium a nobis diligetur (N. D. i. 44), *i.e. if any one shall have attained virtue, &c.*

<sup>1</sup> As in the analogy of the Greek *ὅς ἂν, ὅταν, &c.*; and in statutes, where the phrases *if any person shall, or whoever shall*, are used indifferently.



## Clauses of Purpose.

NOTE. — The Subjunctive clause of Purpose has arisen either from the original *future* meaning of the subjunctive, or from its *hortatory* use. Grammarians are not agreed upon the point ; but it must have originated from one or the other, and either affords a satisfactory analysis. If it was developed from the hortatory subjunctive, it has come through a kind of indirect discourse construction (for which see 340) : thus *misit legatos qui dicerent* means either *he sent ambassadors who would say* (future use), or, *he sent ambassadors who should say*, i.e. *let them say* (compare hortatory subjunctive in past tenses, 266. e, with the thought and hortatory clauses in Indirect Discourse, 336, 339).

As **ut** (**uti**) is of relative origin, the construction with **ut** is the same as that of relatives. That with **ne** is, no doubt, in origin, a *hortatory* subjunctive.

**317. FINAL CLAUSES**, or those expressing Purpose, take the Subjunctive after relatives (**qui** = **ut is**), or the conjunction **ut** (**uti**), *in order that* (negatively **ut ne** or **ne**, *that not*, *lest*) : as,

ab aratro abduxerunt Cincinnatum, ut dictator esset (Fin. ii. 4), *they brought Cincinnatus from the plough that he might be dictator.*  
 scribebat orationes quas alii dicerent (Brut. 56), *he wrote speeches for other men to deliver.*

huic ne ubi consisteret quidem contra te locum reliquisti (Quinct. 22), *you have left him no ground even to make a stand against you.*

nihil habeo quod scribam, *I have nothing to write.*

habebam quo confugerem (Fam. iv. 6), *I had [a retreat] whither I might flee.*

ut ne sit impune (Mil. 12), *that it be not with impunity.*

ne qua ejus adventus procul significatio fiat (B. G. vi. 29), *that no sign of his arrival may be made at a distance.*

a. Sometimes the relative or conjunction has a correlative in the main clause : as,

legum idcirco omnes servi sumus, ut liberi esse possimus (Clu. 53), *for this reason we are subject to the laws, that we may be free.*

ea causa . . . ne, *for this reason, lest, &c.*

b. The ablative **quo** (= **ut eo**) is used as a conjunction in final clauses, especially with *comparatives* : as,

libertate usus est, quo impunius dicax esset (Quinct. 3), *he availed himself of liberty, that he might bluster with more impunity.*

Compare **quominus** (= **ut eo minus**), after verbs of *hindering* (see 331. e).

c. The Principal clause, upon which a final clause depends, is often to be supplied from the context : as,

ac ne longum sit . . . jussimus (Cat. iii. 5), *and, not to be tedious, we ordered, &c.* [strictly, "not to be tedious, I say."]

sed ut ad Dionysium redeamus, . . . (Tusc. v. 22), *but to return to Dionysius, &c.*

satis inconsiderati fuit, ne dicam audacis (Phil. xiii. 5), *it was the act of one rash enough, not to say daring.*

REMARK. — To this principle belongs *nedum* (sometimes *ne*), *still less, not to mention that*, with which the verb itself is often omitted : as,

nedum . . . salvi esse possimus (Clu. 35), *much less could we be safe.*

nedum isti . . . non statim conquisituri sint aliquid sceleris et flagitii (Leg. Ag. ii. 35), *far more will they hunt up at once some sort of crime and scandal.*

nedum in mari et via sit facile (Fam. xvi. 8), *still less is it easy at sea, and on a journey.*

quippe secundae res sapientium animos fatigant; ne illi corruptis moribus victoriae temperarent (Sall. C. 11), *for prosperity overmasters the soul even of the wise; much less did they with their corrupt morals put any check on victory.*

d. Final clauses easily become the object of verbs of Wishing, Commanding, &c. (see 331. a, b).

REMARK. — The clause of Purpose is sometimes rendered in English by *that*, or *in order that*, with *may* or *might* (Potential); but more frequently by the Infinitive with *to* : as,

veni ut viderem, *I came to see (that I might see).*

318. The Purpose of an action is expressed in Latin in various ways; but never (except rarely in poetry) by the simple Infinitive, as in English. The sentence, *they came to seek peace*, may be rendered —

- (1) *venerunt ut pacem peterent* [final clause with *ut*];
- (2) " *qui pacem peterent* [final clause with Relative];
- (3) " *ad petendum pacem* (rare) [gerund with *ad*];
- (4) " *ad petendam pacem* [gerundive with *ad*];
- (5) " *pacem petendi causa*<sup>1</sup> [gerund with *causa*];
- (6) " *pacis petendae causa*<sup>1</sup> [gerundive with *causa*];
- (7) " *pacem petituri* [future participle: not in Cicero];
- (8) " *pacem petitum* [former supine].

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<sup>1</sup> Or *gratia*.

In the choice of these forms the following suggestions are to be observed : —

*a.* The most general way of expressing purpose is by **ut** (negatively **ne**), unless the purpose is *closely connected with some one word*, in which case the relative is more common. Thus —

1. *Arria gladium dedit marito ut se interficeret, Arria gave her husband a sword to kill himself (that he might kill himself).*
2. *Arria gladium dedit marito quo se interficeret, Arria gave her husband a sword to kill himself WITH.*

*b.* The Gerundive constructions of purpose are usually limited to short concise expressions, where the literal translation of the phrase, though not the English idiom, is nevertheless not harsh or strange.

*c.* The Supine is used to express purpose only with verbs of motion, and in a few idiomatic expressions.

*d.* The Future Participle, used to express purpose, is a late construction of inferior authority.

#### Characteristic and Result.

NOTE. — The clause of CHARACTERISTIC is a development peculiar to Latin, and has its origin in the *potential* use of the subjunctive. A Pro-tasis was, perhaps, originally implied, though this is not necessary to the analysis. The difference between the Subjunctive in such clauses and the Indicative of simple description is that the subjunctive expresses what *would happen in a supposed case*, while the indicative states what *did in fact take place*. The most common and obvious use of this construction is to express a quality or characteristic of an indefinite antecedent (either expressed or implied), which shows itself as a Result. Thus, *is [Epicurus] qui ponat summum bonum in voluptate* would mean, literally, *a man who, would, in any supposable case, &c.* This serves to express a characteristic of the indefinite person referred to by *is*, making him one of a class; while *is qui ponit* would mean *the man* (Epicurus) *who in fact does, &c.* So, *non sum ita hebes ut ita dicam* would mean, literally, “I am not dull in the manner (degree) in which I should say that.” This quality of the antecedent readily passes over into pure Result, inasmuch as it is by a supposed result that the quality appears.

**319. CONSECUTIVE CLAUSES**, or those expressing Result, take the Subjunctive after relatives or the conjunction **ut**, *so that* (negatively, **ut non**) : as,

*nemo est tam senex, qui se annum non putet posse vivere* (Cat. M. 7), *no one is so old as not to think he can live a year.*

nam est innocentia affectio talis animi, quae noceat nemini (Tusc. iii. 8), *for innocence is such a quality of mind as to do harm to no one.*  
sunt aliae causae quae plane efficiant (Top. 15), *there are other causes such as to bring to pass.*

REMARK. — Clauses of Result are often introduced by such correlative words as *tam, talis, tantus, ita, sic, adeo*.

a. A negative result is regularly expressed by *ut non*. Sometimes, when the result implies *an effect intended* (not a simple purpose), *ut ne* or *ne* is used, being less positive than *ut non* : as,

[librum] ita corrigas ne mihi noceat (Fam. vi. 7), *correct the book so that it may not hurt me.*

b. Frequently a clause of result is used in a *restrictive* sense, and so amounts to a Proviso : as,

hoc est ita utile ut ne plane illudamur ab accusatoribus (Rosc. Am. 20), *this is so far useful that we are not utterly mocked by the accusers* [i.e. only on this condition].

c. The subjunctive with *quominus* (= *ut eo minus*) may be used, to express a result, after words of *hindering* or *refusing*: as,

nec aetas impedit quominus agri colendi studia teneamus (Cat. M. 17), *nor does age prevent us from retaining an interest in tilling the ground.*

d. A clause of result is introduced by *quin* after general negatives, where *quin* is equivalent to *qui* (*quae, quod*) *non*; also after clauses denoting *hindrance, resistance, doubt, and suspension of effort* (when these clauses are also negative): as,

non dubito quin, *I do not doubt that* [dubito an, *I doubt whether*].

aegre (vix) abstinui quin . . ., *I hardly refrained from, &c.*

nihil impedit quin . . ., *there is nothing to prevent, &c.*

absesse non potest quin (Or. 70), *it cannot be but that.*

nihil est illorum quin [= quod non] ego illi dixerim (Plaut. Bac. iii. 9), *there is nothing of this that I have not told him.*

NOTE. — The above clauses of Result easily pass into Substantive Clauses, for which see 332.

REMARK. — It is to be observed that the constructions of Purpose or Result in Latin are precisely alike in the *affirmative*, but that in the *negative* one takes *ne* and the other *ut non*. Thus, —

custoditus est ne effugeret, *he was guarded so that he MIGHT not escape* ;  
custoditus est ut non effugeret, *he was guarded so that he DID not escape.*

The clause of Result is sometimes expressed in English by the Infinitive with *TO* or *SO-AS-TO* or an equivalent : as,

tam longe aberam ut non viderem, *I was too far away to see (so far that I did not see ; compare 320. c).*

320. A relative clause with the Subjunctive is often used to indicate a Characteristic of the antecedent, where the idea of Result is not obvious. This is especially common where the antecedent is otherwise undefined: as,

neque enim tu is es, qui qui sis nescias (Fam. v. 12), *for you are not such a one, as not to know who you are* (*qui sis* is an indirect question).

multa dicunt quae vix intelligant (Fin. iv. 1), *they say many things such as they hardly understand.*

paci quae nihil habitura sit insidiarum semper est consulendum (Off. i. 11), *we must always aim at a peace which shall have no plots.*

unde agger comportari posset, nihil erat reliquum (B. C. ii. 15), *there was nothing left, from which an embankment could be put together.*

a. A relative clause of characteristic is used after general expressions of *existence* and *non-existence*, including questions implying a negative: <sup>1</sup> as,

erant qui Helvidium miserarentur (Ann. xvi. 29), *there were some who pitied Helvidius.*

quis est qui id non maximis efferat laudibus (Lael. 7), *who is there that does not extol it with the highest praises?*

sunt aliae causae quae plane efficiant (Top. 15), *there are other causes which clearly effect, &c.*

b. A relative clause of characteristic (result) may follow **unus** and **solus**: as,

nil admirari prope res est una solaque quae possit facere et servare beatum (Hor. Ep. i. 6), *to wonder at nothing is almost the sole and only thing that can make and keep one happy.*

c. Comparatives may be followed by a clause of result or characteristic with **quam** **ut**, **quam** **qui** (corresponding to the English **TOO . . . TO**): as,

maiores arbores caedebant quam quas ferre miles posset (Liv. xxviii. 5), *they cut larger trees than what a soldier could carry (too large for a soldier to carry).*

Canachi signa rigidiora sunt quam ut imitentur veritatem (Brut. 18), *the statues of Canachus are too stiff to represent nature.*

d. A clause of characteristic is used in expressions of Restriction or Proviso, introduced by relatives: as,

quod sciam, *so far as I know.*

Catonis orationes, quas quidem invenerim (Brut. 17), *the speeches of Cato, at least such as I have discovered.*

servus est nemo, qui modo tolerabili condicione sit servitutis (Cat. iv. 8), *there is not a slave, at least in any tolerable condition of slavery.*

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<sup>1</sup> These are sometimes called Relative Clauses with an Indefinite Antecedent, but are to be carefully distinguished from the Indefinite Relative in *protasis*.

*e.* A relative clause (often with *ut*, *utpote*, *quippe*) is used when the quality indicated is connected with the action of the main clause, either as Cause on account of which (*since*), or as Hindrance in spite of which (*although*; compare 326): as,

O virum simplicem qui nos nihil celet (Or. 69), *oh, guileless man, who hides nothing from us!*

egomet qui sero Graecas litteras attigissem tamen complures Athenis dies sum commoratus (De Or. 18), *I myself, though I began Greek literature late, yet, &c. [lit., a man who].*

*f.* **Dignus, indignus, aptus, idoneus**, take a clause of result with a relative (rarely with *ut*); in the poets the Infinitive: as,

idoneus qui impetret (Manil. 19), *fit to obtain.*

dignum notari (Hor. Sat. i. 3), *worthy to be stigmatized.*

NOTE. — A clause of Relative Time with *cum* is strictly to be regarded originally as a Clause of Characteristic (see 325).

#### Cause or Reason.

NOTE. — Causal clauses may take the Indicative or Subjunctive according to their construction; the idea of Cause being contained *not in the mood itself*, but in the form of the argument, or the connecting particles.

**321.** The Causal Particles *quia*, *quoniam*, *quando*, *quod* — and in early Latin also *cum* (*quom*) — take the Indicative: as,

*quia* postrema aedificata est (Verr. iv. 53), *because it was built last.*

utinam illum diem videam, cum tibi agam gratias quod me vivere coegisti (Att. iii. 3), *O that I may see the day when I may thank you that you have forced me to live.*

*quoniam* de utilitate jam diximus, de efficiendi ratione dicamus (Or. Part. 26), *since we have now spoken of [its] advantage, let us speak of the method of effecting it.*

*quando* ita vis, di bene vortant (Trin. 573), *since you so wish, may the gods bless the undertaking.*

*quom* tua res distrahitur, utinam te redisse salvam videam (id. 617), *since your property is torn in pieces, oh, that I may see you returned safely!*

*a.* Clauses introduced by these particles, like any other dependent clause, take the Subjunctive of Indirect Discourse.

*b.* A relative clause of Characteristic, with its verb in the subjunctive, may have the force of a causal sentence.

For this, see 320. *e.*

*c.* The particle *cum*, when used in a causal sense, regularly takes the Subjunctive.

For this, see 326.

## Relations of Time.

NOTE. — Temporal clauses are introduced by particles which are almost all of relative origin ; and are construed like other relative clauses, except where they have developed into special constructions.

[For the Temporal Particles, see page 99.]

322. The particles *ubi*, *ut*, *cum*, *quando*, either alone or compounded with *-cumque*, are used as Indefinite Relatives, and have the constructions of Protasis : as,

*cum* rosam viderat, tum incipere ver arbitrabatur (Verr. v. 10), *when-ever he had seen a rose he thought spring had begun* [general condition : compare 309].

*cum* id malum esse negas (Tusc. ii. 12), *when you* [the individual disputant] *deny it to be an evil*.

*cum* videas eos . . . dolore non frangi (id. 27), *when you see that those are not broken by pain, &c.* [general condition : compare 309. a].

quod profecto cum me nulla vis cogeret, facere non auderem (Phil. v. 18), *which I would surely not venture to do, as long as no force compelled me* [contrary to fact : compare 308].

id ubi dixisset, hastam in fines eorum mittebat (Liv. i. 32), *when he had said this, he* [used to] *cast the spear into their territories* [repeated action : see 309. b].

REMARK. — The phrases *est cum*, *fuit cum*, &c., are used in general expressions like *est qui*, *sunt qui* (320. a).

323. Temporal clauses of *absolute time* take the Indicative ; those of *relative time*, the Subjunctive.<sup>1</sup>

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<sup>1</sup> For the definition of Absolute and Relative time, see 264. a, 284. This distinction is not made in other languages, but it may be made clear in the two following expressions: 1. When was the great fire in London? *Ans.* When Charles II. was king (*absolute time*). 2. When Charles II. was king (*relative time*), a great fire broke out in London. In the first case the reign of Charles is referred to as an *absolute fixed date*, known to the hearer ; while in the second the time is not so fixed, but is given as *relative to the event narrated by the main verb*, which alone denotes absolute time. In this construction, the Subjunctive describes the time by its *characteristics* (as in 320), and thus is akin to the subjunctive of Result. Hence this *qualitative* character of the temporal clause often reappears and occasions the subjunctive, where the idea of relative time would not naturally be expected : as, *tum, cum* HABERET haec respublica Luscinos, &c. . . . *et tum, cum* ERANT Catones, &c. Here the former clause describes *the character of the age* by its men (at A time when there were such men) ; in the latter, *the individual men* are present to the mind (at THE time of the Catos, &c. — *Leg. Agr.*, ii. 24).

**324.** The Particles *postquam* (*posteaquam*), *ubi*, *ut* (*ut primum*, *ut semel*), *simul atque* (*simul ac*, or *simul* alone), introduce clauses of *absolute time*, and take the Indicative (usually the narrative tenses, the *perfect* and the *historical present*) : as,

*milites postquam victoriam adepti sunt, nihil reliqui victis fecere* (Sall. Cat. 11), *when the armies had won the victory, they left nothing to the vanquished.*

*Pompeius ut equitatum suum pulsum vidit, acie excessit* (B. C. iii. 94), *when Pompey saw his cavalry beaten, he left the army.*

*a.* These particles also less commonly take the *imperfect*, denoting a continued state of things, and the *pluperfect*, denoting the result of an action completed, in the Indicative : as,

*postquam instructi utrimque stabant, duces in medium procedunt* (Liv. i. 23), *when they stood in array on both sides, the generals advance into the midst.*

*P. Africanus posteaquam bis consul et censor fuerat* (Div. in Cæc. 21), *when Africanus had been* [i.e. had the dignity of having been] *twice consul and censor.*

*postquam id difficilius visum est, neque facultas perficiendi dabatur, ad Pompeium transierunt* (B. C. iii. 60), *when this seemed too hard, and no means of effecting it were given, they passed over to Pompey.*

*post diem quintum quam barbari iterum male pugnauerant* (= *victi sunt*), *legati a Boccho veniunt* (Jug. 110), *the fifth day after the barbarians were beaten the second time, envoys came from Bocchus.*

REMARK. — The time is still absolute in these cases, but the Imperfect is used as in description ; the Pluperfect to denote the past result of the action.

*b.* Rarely these particles appear to denote *relative time*, and take the Subjunctive : as,

*posteaquam maximas aedificasset ornassetque classes* (Manil. 4), *having built and equipped mighty fleets.* [But the more approved editions have *postea cum*.]

**325.** *Cum* (*quom*), TEMPORAL, meaning *when*, introduces both absolute and relative time, and takes either mood, — the Indicative of the *present* and *perfect*, the Subjunctive of the *imperfect* and *pluperfect* : as,

*cum occiditur Sex. Roscius, ibidem fuerunt servi* (Rosc. Am. 61), *when Roscius was slain, the slaves were on the spot.*

*nempe eo [lituo] regiones direxit tum cum urbem condidit* (Div. i. 17), *he traced with it the quarters [of the sky] at the time he founded the city.*

*cum servili bello premeretur* (Manil. 11), *when she [Italy] was under the load of the Servile war.*

*cum incendisses cupiditatem meam . . . tum discedis a nobis* (Fam. xv. 21), *while you had inflamed my eagerness, yet you withdraw from us.*



NOTE.—The Present takes the Indicative, because present time is generally, from its very nature, defined in the mind; and it is only when the circumstances are described as causal or adversative (see below, 326), that the Subjunctive is used. The Perfect takes the Indicative as the tense of narration, as with *postquam*, &c. The Imperfect and Pluperfect are, from their nature, fitter to denote relative time.

a. The Imperfect and Pluperfect may denote *absolute time*, and then are in the Indicative (compare 264. a): as,

res cum haec scribebam erat in extremum adducta discrimen (Fam. xii. 6), *at the time I write [epistolary] the affair has been brought into great hazard.*

quem quidem cum ex urbe pellebam, hoc providebam animo (Cat. iii. 7), *when I was trying to force him [conative imperfect] from the city, I looked forward to this.*

fulgentes gladios hostium videbant Decii cum in aciem eorum inruerant (Tusc. ii. 24), *the Decii saw the flashing swords of the enemy when they rushed upon their line.*

tum cum in Asia res magnas permulti amiserant (Manil. 7), *at that time, when many had lost great fortunes in Asia.*

b. When the clauses are inverted, so that the real temporal clause becomes the main clause, and *vice versa*, the Indicative must be used: as,

dies nondum decem intercesserant, cum ille alter filius infans necatur (Clu. 9), *ten days had not yet passed, when the other infant son was killed.*

hoc facere noctu apparabant, cum matres familiae repente in publicum procurrerunt (B. G. vii. 26), *they were preparing to do this by night, when the women suddenly ran out into the streets.*

c. With Future tenses, there is no distinction of absolute or relative time; and hence the Indicative is used: as,

non dubitabo dare operam ut te videam, cum id satis commode facere potero (Fam. xiii. 1), *I shall not hesitate to take pains to see you, when I can do it conveniently.*

longum illud tempus cum non ero (Att. xii. 18), *that long time when I shall be no more.*

REMARK.—In the other tenses, the distinction is of late origin: hence in Plautus *quom* always takes the Indicative, except where the Subjunctive is used for other reasons.

326. *Cum* CAUSAL or CONCESSIVE<sup>1</sup> (*since, while, though*) takes the subjunctive (often emphasized by *ut, utpote, quippe, praesertim*): as,

cum solitudo . . . insidiarum et metus plena sit (Fin. i. 20), *since solitude is full of treachery and fear.*

<sup>1</sup> This *causal* relation is merely a variation of the idea of *time*, where the attendant circumstances are regarded as the cause.

cum primi ordines . . . concidissent, tamen acerrime reliqui resistebant (B. G. vii. 61), *though the first ranks had fallen, still the others resisted vigorously.*

nec reprehendo : quippe cum ipse istam reprehensionem non fugerim (Att. x. 3), *I find no fault : since I myself did not escape that blame.*

a. Cum in the sense of quod, on the ground that, frequently takes the Indicative : as,

gratulor tibi cum tantum vales apud Dolabellam (Fam. xi. 14), *I congratulate you that you are so strong with Dolabella.*

b. Cum . . . tum, signifying both . . . and, usually take the Indicative ; but when cum approaches the sense of while or though, it may have the Subjunctive : as,

cum multa non probo, tum illud in primis (Fin. i. 6), *while there are many things I do not approve, there is this in chief.*

cum res tota ficta sit pueriliter, tum ne efficit quidem quod vult (ib.), *while the whole thing is childishly got up, he does not even make his point.*

REMARK. — This appears to be a colloquial relic of the old Indicative construction with cum.

327. Antequam and priusquam — also, in late writers, dum and donec — have in narration the same construction as cum : as,

antequam tuas legi litteras (Att. ii. 7), *before I read your letter.*

neque ante dimisit eum quam fidem dedit adolescens (Liv. xxxix. 10), *she did not let the young man go till he pledged his faith.*

antequam homines nefarii de meo adventu audire potuissent, in Macedoniam perrexī (Planc. 41), *before those evil men could learn of my coming, I arrived in Macedonia.*

nec obstitit falsis donec tempore ac spatio vanescerent (Tac. Ann. ii. 82), *nor did he contradict the falsehoods till they died out through lapse of time.*

a. In reference to future time, these particles take the present and future perfect indicative ; rarely the present subjunctive : as,

prius quam de ceteris rebus respondeo, de amicitia pauca dicam (Phil. ii. 1), *before I reply to the rest, I will say a little of friendship.*

non defatigabor ante quam illorum ancipites vias percepero (De Or. iii. 36), *I shall not weary till I have traced out their doubtful ways.*

b. In a few cases the subjunctive of protasis seems to be used : as,

priusquam incipias consulto et ubi consulueris mature facto opus est (Sall. Cat. 1), *before beginning you need reflection, and after reflecting, prompt action.*

In omnibus negotiis priusquam aggrediare, adhibenda est praeparatio diligens (De Off. i. 21, 73), *In all undertakings before you proceed to action, careful preparation must be used* (compare § 309).

**328.** *Dum*, *donec*, and *quoad*, implying purpose, doubt, or futurity, take the subjunctive; otherwise, except in later writers, the indicative. *Dum* and *dummodo*, *provided*, take the subjunctive: as,

*dum haec geruntur* (B. G. i. 46), *while this was going on.*

*donec rediit silentium fuit* (Liv. xxiii. 31), *there was silence until he returned.*

*dum res maneant, verba fingant* (Fin. v. 27), *so long as the facts remain, let them fashion words.*

*hoc feci dum licuit, intermisi quoad non licuit* (Phil. iii. 13). *I did this so long as it was allowed, I discontinued so long as it was not.*

*dummodo sit polita, dum urbana, dum elegans* (Brut. 82), *provided it be polished, refined, elegant.*

REMARK.—With all temporal particles, the Subjunctive is often found, depending on other principles of construction. (See Intermediate Clauses below, p. 251.)

## II.—Substantive Clauses.

**329.** A Substantive Clause is one which, like a noun, is the subject or object of a verb, or in apposition with a subject or object.

NOTE.—In these the form of expression will depend on the meaning of the dependent words, or clause. Thus, if the words can be put in an independent form as the words of some person making an assertion in the Indicative, they form what is called Indirect Discourse, and the clause is in the Accusative and Infinitive, as the Object of some verb of *saying*, &c. (see 272. with Remark). If they can be put in an independent form as a Question, they require the Subjunctive as Indirect Questions. If they can be put in an independent form as the words of some person in the Imperative, or can be conceived as a Purpose or Result, they usually take the Subjunctive with *ut*, more rarely the Infinitive. If they could be expressed independently in the Indicative, but *as a fact*, and not as the words of some other person, they regularly require *quod* with the Indicative. Many expressions which in English take the form of an abstract noun may be rendered by a substantive clause in Latin: thus, “he was accused of treason against his country,” will be *accusatus est quod patriam prodidisset*. The common expression FOR with the infinitive also introduces a true substantive clause: as, “it is left for me to speak of the piratic war,” *reliquum est ut de bello dicam piratico*.

When a substantive clause is used as Subject, the verb to which it is subject is called Impersonal, and its sign, in English, is *IT*; when it is used as Object, it generally follows some verb of *knowing*, &c., or of *wishing* or *effecting*, and its sign, in English, is *THAT*, or *TO* (Infinitive).

Substantive Clauses are classified as follows:—

1. INFINITIVE CLAUSES: {
  - a. Infinitive as Subject (270).
  - b. Infinitive as Object (271).
  - c. Infinitive with Subject Accusative (272).
2. SUBJUNCTIVE CLAUSES: {
  - a. of Purpose (command, wish, fear).  
(*ut, ne, quo, quin, quominus*).
  - b. of Result (happen, effect, hinder).
3. INDICATIVE CLAUSE with **quod**: Fact, Specification, Feeling.
4. INDIRECT QUESTIONS: Subjunctive, introduced by Interrogative Word.

#### Infinitive Clauses.

330. The Accusative with the Infinitive is used as the Subject chiefly of **esse**, or of Impersonal Verbs; and as the Object of the following: <sup>1</sup>

1. Of all verbs and expressions of Knowing, Thinking, Telling, and Perceiving (*Indirect Discourse*).

2. Of **jubeo** and **veto**, and rarely of other verbs of Commanding, Requesting, Admonishing, and the like.

3. Sometimes of verbs of Wishing: as,

*me spero liberatum [esse] metu* (Tusc. ii. 27), *I trust I have been freed from fear.*

*dicat montem ab hostibus teneri* (B. G. i. 22), *he says that the height is held by the enemy.*

*Labienum jugum montis adscendere jubet* (id. 21), *he orders Labienus to ascend the ridge of the hill.*

*judicem esse me non doctorem volo* (Or. 33), *I wish to be a judge, not a teacher.*

*negat ullos patere portus* (Liv. xxviii. 43), *he says that no ports are open.*

*hic accusare non est situs* (Sest. 44), *he was not allowed to accuse.*

REMARK.—The Infinitive with the Accusative, though not strictly a Clause, is equivalent to one, and may be treated as such.

a. If the main verb is changed to the Passive, either—

1. The subject of the infinitive (like other objects of active verbs) becomes *nominative*, and the infinitive is retained; or,

2. The passive is used *impersonally*, and the clause retained as its subject.

<sup>1</sup> The accusative with infinitive is found with about 80 verbs or verbal phrases, the most common being *accipio, affirmo, animadverto, arbitror, audio, censeo, cogito, cupio, decet, dico, disputo, doceo, doleo, existimo, fama est, fateor, intelligitur, juvat, memini, narro, nego, nolo, oportet, opus est, patior, puto, recordor, rumor est, sentio, sino, spero, suspicor, traditur, verum est, veto, video, videtur, volo.*

*b.* With verbs of *saying*, &c., the personal construction of the passive is more common, especially in the tenses of incomplete action ; with *jubeo* and *veto* it is always used : as,

*primi traduntur arte quadam verba vinxisse* (Or. 13), *they first are related to have joined words with a certain skill.*

*jussus es renuntiari consul* (Phil. ii. 32), *you were under orders to be declared consul.*

*in lautumias Syracusanas deduci imperantur* (Verr. v. 27), *they are ordered to be taken to the stone-pits of Syracuse.*

*ceterae Illyrici legiones secuturae sperabantur* (Tac. Hist. ii. 74), *the rest of the legions of Illyricum were expected to follow.*

*nuntiatur piratarum naves esse in portu* (Verr. v. 24), *it is told that the ships of the pirates are in port.*

*c.* In the compound tenses the impersonal construction is more common, and with the gerundive is regular : as,

*traditum est etiam Homerum caecum fuisse* (Tusc. v. 39), *it is a tradition, too, that Homer was blind.*

*ubi tyrannus est, ibi non vitiosam, sed dicendum est plane nullam esse rempublicam* (Rep. iii. 31), *where there is a tyrant, it must be said, not that the Commonwealth is evil, but that it does not exist at all.*

*d.* The poets and later writers extend the use of the passive to verbs which are not properly *verba sentiendi*, etc. : as,

*colligor dominae placuisse* (Ov. Am. ii. 6, 61), *it is gathered [from this memorial] that I pleased my mistress.*

*e.* The indirect discourse may depend on any word implying speech or thought, though not strictly a verb of *saying*, etc. : as,

*eos redire jubet : se in tempore adfuturum esse* (Liv. xxiv. 13), *he orders them to return, [promising] that he will be at hand in season.*

*orantes ut urbibus saltem — jam enim agros deploratos esse — opem senatus ferret* (id. xvi. 6). *praying that the senate would at least bring aid to the cities — for the fields [they said] were already given up as lost.*

*f.* Verbs of *promising*, *hoping*, *expecting*, *threatening*, *swearing*, and the like, regularly take the construction of Indirect Discourse, contrary to the English idiom ; but sometimes a simple complementary infinitive : as,

*minatur sese abire* (Asin. iii. 3), *he threatens to go away.* [Direct, *abeo, I am going away.*]

*ex quibus sperant se maximum fructum esse capturos* (Lael. 21), *from which they hope to gain the utmost advantage.*

*quem inimicissimum futurum esse promitto ac spondeo* (Mur. 41), *who I promise and warrant will be the bitterest of enemies.*

*dolor fortitudinem se debilitaturum minatur* (Tusc. v. 27), *pain threatens to wear down fortitude.*

*pollicentur obsides dare* (B. G. iv. 21), *they promise to give hostages* [compare Greek aorist infinitive after similar verbs].

## Clauses of Purpose.

331. The clause with **ut** (negative **ne**), developed from PURPOSE, is used as the object of all verbs denoting an action *directed towards the future*.<sup>1</sup> Such are—

a. Verbs of *commanding, asking, admonishing, urging*, and in general those denoting an *influence* upon some one. These verbs rarely take the infinitive (except *jubeo* and *veto*, which take it regularly): as,

his uti conquirerent imperavit (B. G. i. 28), *he ordered them to search.*  
monet ut omnes suspitiones vitet (id. 20), *he warns him to avoid all suspicion.*

b. Verbs of *Wishing* and the like. These take also the simple Infinitive: more commonly when the subject remains the same, less commonly when it is different (see 331, above): as,

cupio ut impetret (Capt. i. 2), *I wish he may get it.*  
cum nostri perspicere cuperent (B. G. iii. 21), *when our men wished it to be seen.*  
mallet Cerberum metueres (Tusc. i. 6), *I would rather you feared Cerberus.*  
quos non tam ulcisci studeo quam sanare (Cat. ii. 8), *whom I do not care so much to punish as to cure.*

c. Verbs of *permission, concession, and necessity* (with or without **ut**). These take also the Infinitive: as,

permisit ut partes faceret (De Or. ii. 90), *permitted him to make divisions.*  
vinum importari non sinunt (B. G. iv. 2), *they do not allow wine to be imported.*  
nullo se implicari negotio passus est (Lig. 3), *he suffered himself to be tangled in no business.*  
sint enim oportet si miseri sunt (Tusc. i. 6), *they must exist if they are wretched.* [Here the clause is subject of *oportet*.]

REMARK.—The clause with **licet** (usually without **ut**) is regularly used to express a concession in the sense of *although*.

d. Verbs of *determining, resolving, bargaining*, which also take the Infinitive. Those of *decreeing* often take the participle in **du**, on the principle of Indirect Discourse: as,

edicto ne quis injussu pugnaret (Liv. v. 19), *having commanded that none should fight without orders.*

<sup>1</sup> Such Verbs or verbal phrases are *id ago, ad id venio, caveo (ne), censeo, cogo, concedo, constituo, curo, decerno, edico, flagito, hortor, impero, impetro, insto, mando, metuo (ne), negotium do, operam do, oro, persuadeo, peto, postulo, praecipio, precor, pronuntio, quaero, rogo, scisco, timeo, video, volo*.

pacto ut victorem res sequeretur (id. xxviii. 21), *having bargained that the property should belong to the victor.*

Regulus captivos reddendos non censuit (Off. i. 13), *Regulus voted that the captives should not be returned.* [He said, in giving his opinion, *captivi non reddendi sunt.*]

*e.* Verbs of *caution* and *effort*. Those denoting an *effort* to *hinder* may also take *quominus* or *ne* or the Infinitive: as,

cura et provide ut nequid ei desit (Att. ii. 3), *take care and see that he lacks nothing.*

non deterret sapientem mors quominus . . . (Tusc. i. 38), *death does not deter the wise man from, &c.*

ne facerem impedivit (Fat. i. 1), *prevented me from doing.*

*f.* Verbs of *Fearing* take the subjunctive,<sup>1</sup> with *ne* affirmative and *ne non* or *ut* negative: as,

ne animum offenderet verebatur (B. G. i. 19), *he feared he should offend the mind, &c.*

vereor ut tibi possim concedere (De Or. i. 9), *I fear I cannot grant you.*

haud sane periculum est ne non mortem optandam putet (Tusc. v. 40), *there is no danger of not thinking death desirable.*

REMARK. — The particle *ut* is often omitted, — generally after verbs of *wishing*, *necessity*, *permission*; with *dic*, *fac*; and in indirect discourse, frequently after verbs of *commanding* and the like. So also *ne* after *cave*.

*g.* With any verbs of the above classes, the poets may use the Infinitive: as,

hortamur fari (Æn. ii. 74), *we exhort [him] to speak.*

#### Clauses of Result.

332. The clause with *ut* (negative *ut non*, etc.), developed from *RESULT*, is used as the object of verbs denoting the *accomplishment of an effort*.<sup>2</sup>

commeatus ut portari possent efficiebat (B. G. ii. 5), *he made it possible that supplies could be brought.* [Lit., he effected that, &c.]

<sup>1</sup> With verbs of *Fearing* the subjunctive with *ne* is hortatory: *timeo ne accidat* is literally *I fear, let it not happen*. With *ut* it may have been either hortatory or derived from *Purpose*.

<sup>2</sup> Verbs and phrases taking an *ut*-clause of result are *accedit*, *accidit*, *additur*, *altera est res*, *committo*, *consequor*, *contingit*, *efficio*, *evenit*, *facio*, *fit*, *fieri potest*, *fore*, *integrum est*, *mos est*, *munus est*, *necesse est*, *prope est*, *rectum est*, *relinquitur*, *reliquum est*, *restat*, *tanti est*, *tantum abest*, and a few others.

a. The substantive clause becomes the subject of such verbs in the passive; and hence is further used as the subject of verbs denoting *it happens, it remains, it follows*, and the like; and even of the simple *esse* in the same sense, and other phrases: as,

sequitur ut doceam (N. D. ii. 32), *the next thing is to show, &c.*

accidit ut esset plena luna (B. G. iv. 29), *it chanced to be full moon.*

accedit ut conturber (Deiot. 1), *besides this I am troubled.*

reliquum est quarta virtus ut sit ipsa frugalitas (id.), *it remains that the fourth virtue is thrift.*

quando fuit ut quod licet non liceret (Cæl. 20), *when was it that what is now allowed was not allowed?*

b. A result clause, with or without *ut*, frequently follows *quam*, after a comparative: as,

perpeccus est omnia potius quam indicaret (Tusc. i. 22), *he endured all rather than betray, &c.*

c. A result clause, with or without *ut*, is often used elliptically, in exclamations, with or without *-ne* (see 274): as,

quanquam quid loquor? te ut ulla res frangat (Cat. i. 9), *yet why should I ask? that any thing should bend you?*

egone ut te interellem (Tusc. ii. 18), *what, I interrupt you?*

REMARK. — The Infinitive, in exclamations, usually refers to something actually occurring; the Subjunctive to something contemplated.

d. The phrase *tantum abest*, *it is so far* [from being the case], besides a subject-clause (*substantive*) with *ut*, regularly takes another *ut*-clause (of *result*) correlative with *tantum*: as,

tantum abest ut nostra miremur, ut usque eo difficiles ac morosissimus, ut nobis non satisfaciatur ipse Demosthenes (Or. 29), *so far from admiring our own matters, we are difficult and captious to that degree, that not Demosthenes himself satisfies us.* [Here the first *ut*-clause is the subject of *abest*; the second, a result clause, after *tantum*; and the third, after *usque eo*.]

e. The expressions *facere ut*, *committere ut*, often form a periphrasis for the simple verb (compare *fore ut* for the future infinitive): as,

invitus feci ut Flaminium e senatu eicerem (Cat. M. 12), *it was with reluctance that I expelled, &c.*

f. Rarely, a thought or idea is considered as a result, and takes the subjunctive with *ut* instead of the accusative and infinitive. In this case a demonstrative usually precedes: as,

altera est res, ut . . . (Off. i. 20), *the second point is that, &c.*

praeclarum illud est, ut eos . . . amemus (Tusc. iii. 29), *this is a noble thing, that we should love, &c.*

quae est igitur amentia ut, *what folly is there then in demanding, &c.*



*g.* Verbs and other expressions which imply *hindering* and the like may take *quin* when the main verb is negative, formally or virtually (compare 319. *d*): as,

*facere non possum quin . . .* (Att. xii. 27), *I cannot avoid, &c.*

*nihil praetermisi quin scribam . . .* (Q. F. iii. 3), *I have left nothing undone to write.*

*ut nulla re impedirer quin* (Att. iv. 2), *that I might be hindered by nothing from, &c.*

*non humana ulla neque divina obstant quin* (Sall. Ep. Mith. 17), *no human or divine laws prevent, but that, &c.*

REMARK. — This usage is found especially with the phrase **non dubito** and similar expressions making a kind of Indirect Discourse: as,

*non dubitabat quin ei crederemus* (Att. vi. 2), *he did not doubt that we believed him.*

*illud cave dubites quin ego omnia faciam* (Fam. v. 20), *do not doubt that I will do all.*

*quis ignorat quin* (Flacc. 27), *who is ignorant that, &c.?*

*neque ambigitur quin Brutus pessimo publico id facturus fuerit si priorum regum alicui regnum extorsisset* (Livy, ii. 1), *nor is there any question that Brutus, if he had wrested the kingdom from any one of the former kings, would have done it with the worst results to the state* [direct discourse, *fecisset*].

*h.* Some verbs and expressions may be used either as verbs of *saying* or as words of *commanding*, *effecting*, and the like, and may be construed accordingly: as,

*sequitur illico esse causas immutabiles* (Fat. 12), *it follows directly that there are unalterable causes.* [The regular construction with *sequor* used of a logical sequence.]

*laudem sapientiae statuo esse maximam* (Div. v. 13), *I hold that the glory of wisdom is the greatest.*

*statuunt ut decem millia hominum mittantur* (B. G. xii. 21), *they resolve that 10,000 men shall be sent.*

*res ipsa monebat tempus esse* (Att. x. 8), *the thing itself warned that it was time* [monere ut, *warn to do something*].

*fac mihi esse persuasum* (N. D. i. 27), *suppose that I am persuaded of that* [facere ut, *accomplish that*].

*hoc volunt persuadere, non interire animos* (B. G. vi. 13), *they wish to convince that souls do not perish.*

*huic persuadet uti ad hostes transeat* (B. G. iii. 18), *persuades him to pass over to the enemy.*

NOTE. — The infinitive, with a subject, in this construction is indirect discourse, and is to be distinguished from the simple infinitive sometimes found with these verbs instead of a subjunctive clause.

Indicative with Quod.

**333.** The clause in the Indicative with **quod** is used (more commonly as Subject) when the statement is *regarded as a fact*: as,

alterum est vitium, quod quidam nimis magnum studium conferunt (Off. i. 6), *it is another fault that some bestow too much zeal, &c.* [Here **ut** with the subjunctive could be used, meaning that they *should*, or the accusative and infinitive, meaning *to* more abstractly; **quod** makes it a fact that men *do*, &c.]

inter inanimatum et animal hoc maxime interest, quod animal agit aliquid (Ac. ii. 12), *this is the chief difference, &c., that an animal aims at something.*

quod rediit nobis mirabile videtur (Off. iii. 31), *that he [Regulus] returned seems wonderful to us.*

vetus illud Catonis admodum scitum est, qui mirari se aiebat quod non rideret haruspex haruspicem cum vidisset (de Div. ii. 24), *'tis an old and shrewd saying of Cato, that he wondered a soothsayer did not laugh when he looked another in the face.* [Here *rideret* is in the subjunctive of indirect discourse: see 336.]

*a.* In colloquial language, the clause with **quod** appears as an *accusative of specification*, corresponding to the English **WHEREAS** (compare 326. *a*): as,

quod de domo scribis (Fam. xiv. 2), *as to what you write of the house.*

quod mihi de nostro statu gratularis, minime miramur te tuis praeclaris operibus laetari (Att. i. 5), *as to your congratulating me on our condition, no wonder you are pleased with your own noble works.*

*b.* Verbs of *feeling* and its expression take either **quod** (**quia**) (Causal), or the accusative and infinitive (Indirect Discourse): as,

quod scribis . . . gaudeo (Q. F. iii. 1), *I am glad that you write.*

quae perfecta esse vehementer laetor (Rosc. Am. 47), *I greatly rejoice that this is finished.*

facio libenter quod eam non possum praeterire (Leg. i. 24), *I am glad that I cannot pass it by.*

REMARK. — Rarely, an apparent substantive clause, with **miror** and similar expressions, is introduced by **si** (really a Protasis): as,

miror si quemquam amicum habere potuit (Lael. 15), *I wonder if he could ever have a friend (originally, if this is so, I wonder at it).*

Indirect Questions.

NOTE. — An Indirect Question is any sentence or clause, introduced by an interrogative word (pronoun, adverb, &c.), and which is itself the subject or object of a verb, or which depends on any expression implying uncertainty or doubt. In grammatical form, exclamatory sentences are not distinguished from interrogative, as in the third example given below.

**334. An Indirect Question takes its verb in the Subjunctive : as,**

quid ipse sentiam exponam (Div. i. 6), *I will explain what I think* [direct, *quid sentio*].

id possetne fieri consuluit (id. 7), *he consulted whether it could be done* [direct, *potestne*].

quam sis audax omnes intellegere potuerunt (Rosc. Am. 31), *all could understand how bold you are* [direct, *quam es audax* !].

doleam necne doleam nihil interest (Tusc. ii. 12), *it is of no account whether I suffer or not* [double question].

a. The Future Indicative is represented in indirect questions by the participle in *urus* with the subjunctive of *esse*, — rarely by the simple subjunctive : as,

prospicio qui concursus futuri sint (Div. in Cæc.), *I foresee what throngs there will be* [erunt].

quid sit futurum cras, fuge quaerere (Hor. Od. i. 9), *forbear to ask what will be on the morrow* [erit or futurum est].

b. The Dubitative Subjunctive (referring to future time) remains unchanged except in tense : as,

[quaeritur] utrum Carthago diruatur, an Carthaginensibus reddatur (De Inv. i. 12), [the question is] *shall Carthage be destroyed, or restored to the Carthaginians*.

nec quisquam satis certum habet, quid aut speret aut timeat (Liv. xxii. 7), *nor is any one well assured what he shall hope or fear*. [Here the participle with *sit* could not be used.]

incerto quid peterent aut vitarent (Liv. xxviii. 36), *since it was doubtful* [abl. abs.] *what they should seek or shun*.

c. The subject of an indirect question is often, in colloquial usage and in poetry, attracted into the main clause as Object (*accusative of anticipation*) : as,

nosti Marcellum quam tardus sit (Fam. viii. 10), *you know how slow Marcellus is*. [Compare, *I know thee who thou art*.]

potestne igitur earum rerum quare futurae sint ulla esse praesensio (Div. ii. 5), *can there be, then, any foreknowledge as to those things, why they will occur?* [A similar use of the object-genitive.]

REMARK. — In some cases the Object of anticipation becomes Subject by a change of *voice*, and an apparent mixture of relative and interrogative construction is the result : as,

quidam saepe in parva pecunia perspiciuntur quam sint leves (Lael. 17), *it is often seen, in a trifling matter of money, how unprincipled some people are*.

quemadmodum Pompeium oppugnarent a me indicati sunt (Leg. Ag. i. 2), *it has been shown by me in what way they attacked Pompey*.

d. In early Latin and poetry, questions which elsewhere would have the Subjunctive as indirect often have the Indicative : as,

non reputat quid laboris est (Amph. 172), *he does not consider what a task it is.*

vineam quo in agro conseri oportet sic observato (Cato R.R. 6), *in what soil a vineyard should be set you must observe thus.*

NOTE. — These cases are usually considered Direct questions ; but they occur (as above) where the question cannot be translated as direct without distortion of the meaning.

e. A few expressions properly interrogative are used idiomatically as *indefinites*, and do not take a subjunctive : such are *nescio quis*, etc., *mirum* (or *nimirum*) *quam* or *quantum*, *immane quantum*, etc. : as,

qui istam nescio quam indolentiam magnopere laudant (Tusc. iii. 6), *who greatly extol that painlessness (whatever it is).*

mirum quantum profuit (Liv. ii. 1), *it helped marvellously.*

f. Occasionally, a virtual indirect question is introduced by *si* in the sense of *whether* (like *if* in English, cf. 333. r) : as,

circumfunduntur hostes si quem aditum reperire possent (B. G. vi. 37), *the enemy pour round [to see] if they can find entrance.*

visam si domi est (Heaut. 118), *I will go see if he is at home.*

### III. — Indirect Discourse.

NOTE. — The Indirect Discourse (*Oratio Obliqua*), with the accusative and infinitive, is a comparatively late form of speech, developed in the Latin and Greek only, and perhaps separately in each of them. It is wholly wanting in the older members of the family, but some forms like it have grown up later in English and German. Its essential character is that the language of some other person than the writer or speaker is compressed into a kind of Substantive Clause, the verb of the main clause becoming Infinitive, while modifying clauses, as well as hortatory forms of speech, take the Subjunctive. In any case, the person of the verb is necessarily conformed to the new relation of persons. This construction, however, is not limited to the language of some other person ; but may be used in any case where the idea may be conceived of as expressed in the form of an independent statement, whether by another or by one's self. Thus *I see*, or *I think* may take the same construction as *he said*, whenever the object of seeing or thinking can be expressed in the form of a sentence ; since any thing that can be *said* can also be *reported* indirectly as well as directly.

The use of the Infinitive in the main clause undoubtedly comes from its use as a *case-form* to complete or modify the action expressed by the

verb and its object together. This object in time came to be regarded as, and in fact to all intents became, the subject of the infinitive. A transition state is found in Sanskrit, which, though it has no indirect discourse proper, yet allows an indirect predication after verbs of Saying and the like, by means of a predicative apposition, in such expressions as, "The maids told the king [that] his daughter [was] bereft of her senses."

The simple form of indirect statement with the infinitive was afterwards amplified by introducing any dependent or modifying clauses also; and in Latin it became a common construction, which could be expanded to any length, and could report whole speeches, &c., which in other languages would have the direct form. (Compare the style of reporting speeches in English, where only the person or tense is changed, as is also rarely the case in Sanskrit.)

The use of the Subjunctive in dependent clauses probably came from regarding the statements contained in them as not *absolutely* true, but conditioned upon the trustworthiness of the original speaker, or grammatically, as Apodosis with an implied Protasis, like *if we may believe the speaker*. So the French conditional is often equivalent to "it is said": as, *ainsi il aurait a peu près doublé*, "it is said to have nearly doubled," lit. "would have," i.e. if we should believe the report. So in German, *Er soll krank sein*, "he is said to be sick."

The Subjunctive standing for hortatory forms of speech is simply the usual hortatory subjunctive, with change of person and tense (if necessary), as in the reporter's style, and in Sanskrit.

**335.** A Direct Quotation is one which gives the exact words of the original speaker or writer. An Indirect Quotation is one which adapts the original words to the construction of the sentence in which they are quoted.

REMARK. — The term INDIRECT DISCOURSE (*oratio obliqua*) is used to designate all clauses — even single clauses in a sentence of different construction — which indirectly express the word or thought of any person other than the speaker or writer, or even his own under other circumstances. But it is more strictly used to include those cases only in which the form of Indirect Quotation is given to some *complete proposition* or *citation*, which may be extended to a narrative or address of any length, — as found in the Speeches of Cæsar and Livy, — the form being dependent on some word of *saying*, &c., with which it is introduced. Such words are *dico*, *respondeo*, *nuntio*, *ait*; while *inquam* always serves (in prose) to introduce a Direct Quotation.

The term DIRECT DISCOURSE (*oratio recta*) includes all other forms of expression, whether narration, question, exclamation, or command.

## Indirect Narrative.

**336.** In a Declaratory Sentence in indirect discourse, the principal verb is in the Infinitive, and its subject in the Accusative. All subordinate clauses take the Subjunctive: as,

*esse nonnullos quorum auctoritas plurimum valeat* (B. G. i. 17), *there are some, whose influence most prevails.* [In direct discourse, *sunt nonnulli . . . valet.*]

*nisi jurasset, scelus se facturum [esse] arbitrabatur* (Verr. i. 47), *he thought he should incur guilt, unless he should take the oath [direct, nisi juravero, faciam].*

*Stoici negant quidquam esse bonum, nisi quod honestum sit* (Fin. ii. 21), *the Stoics assert that nothing is good but what is right.* [The verb *nego* is used in preference to *dico* with a negative.]

*a.* The Subject of the Infinitive in indirect discourse must regularly be expressed, even though it is wanting in the direct. But it is omitted, rarely, when it would be easily understood: as,

*orator sum, I am an orator; [dicit] se esse oratorem, [he says] he is an orator.*

*ignoscere imprudentiae dixit* (B. G. iv. 27), *he said he pardoned their rashness.*

*rogavi pervenissentne Agrigentum: dixit pervenisse* (Verr. iv. 12), *I asked whether they [the curtains] had come to Agrigentum: he answered that they had.*

**REMARK.** — After a relative, or *quam* (*than*), where the verb would be the same as that of the main clause, it is usually omitted, and its subject is attracted into the accusative: as,

*te suspicor eisdem rebus quibus meipsum commoveri* (Cat. M. 1), *I suspect that you are disturbed by the same things as I.*

*b.* A subordinate clause *merely explanatory*, and containing statements which are regarded as true independently of the quotation, takes the Indicative. It often depends merely upon the feeling of the writer whether he will use the Indicative or Subjunctive (compare 340–342): as,

*quis neget haec omnia quae videmus deorum potestate administrari* (Cat. iii. 9), *who can deny that all these things we see are ruled by the power of the gods?*

*cujus ingenio putabat ea quae gesserat posse celebrari* (Arch. 9), *by whose genius he thought that those deeds which he had done could be celebrated.* [Here the fact expressed by *quae gesserat*, though not explanatory, is felt to be true without regard to the quotation: *quae gessisset* would mean, what Marius claimed to have done.]

REMARK. — Some clauses introduced by relatives are really independent, and take the accusative and infinitive. Rarely, also, subordinate clauses take this construction. The infinitive construction is regularly continued after a comparative with *quam* : as,

*Marcellus requisivisse dicitur Archimedem illum, quem cum audisset interfectum permoleste tulisse* (Verr. iv. 58), *Marcellus is said to have sought for Archimedes, and when he heard that he was slain, to have been greatly distressed.*

*unumquemque nostrum censent philosophi mundi esse partem, ex quo [= et ex eo] illud natura consequi* (Fin. iii. 19), *the philosophers say that each one of us is a part of the universe, from which this naturally follows.*

*quemadmodum si non dedatur obses pro rupto se foedus habiturum, sic deditam inviolatam ad suos remissurum* (Liv. ii. 13), *[he says] as in case the hostage is not given up he will consider the treaty as broken, so if given up he will return her unharmed to her friends.*

*addit se prius occisum iri ab eo quam me violatum iri* (Att. ii. 20), *he adds that he himself will be killed by him, before I shall be injured.*

The subjunctive with or without *ut* also occurs with *quam* (see 332. *b*).

#### Conditions.

337. In a Conditional Sentence, the indicative in *APQDOSIS* is in any case represented by the corresponding tense of the Infinitive. The subjunctive is represented by the Future Participle with *fuisset* for the pluperfect, and the Future Infinitive for the other tenses (compare the use of the participle in *urus* with *fui* for the *pluperfect subjunctive*). The *PROTASIS*, as a dependent clause, is in all cases Subjunctive : as,

*se non defuturum [esse] pollicetur, si audacter dicere velint* (B. C. i. 1), *he promises not to fail, if they will speak their minds boldly [non deero si voletis].*

NOTE. — The future infinitive, representing the imperfect subjunctive in *apodosis*, is for some reason very rare, and only four or five examples occur in classic authors. On the contrary, the form with *fuisset* is quite common, even when in the Direct we should expect the Imperfect.

#### Questions.

338. A Question coming *immediately after* a verb of asking or the like is treated as an Indirect Question (see above, 334) ; but questions — generally rhetorical — coming in course of a long indirect discourse are treated like Declaratory Sentences : as,

*num etiam recentium injuriarum memoriam [se] deponere posse* (B. G. i. 14), *could he lay aside the memory of recent wrongs? [num possum?]*

*quem signum daturum fugientibus? quem ausurum Alexandro succedere* (Q. C. iii. 5), *who will give the signal on the retreat? who will dare to succeed Alexander?*

**REMARK.** — Generally *real* questions, expecting an answer (chiefly in the *second person*), take the subjunctive. Questions asked by the dubitative subjunctive must retain the subjunctive (see 334. *b*).

#### Commands.

**339.** All Imperative forms of speech take the Subjunctive in indirect discourse: as,

reminisceretur veteris incommodi populi Romani (B. G. 13), *remember* [said he] *the ancient disaster*, &c. [reminiscere].  
ne committeret ut (ib.), *do not* [said he] *bring it about* [noli committere].  
finem orandi faciat (id. 20), *let him make an end of entreaty* [fac].

The following example may serve to illustrate some of the foregoing principles in a connected address: —

#### Indirect Discourse.

Si pacem populus Romanus cum Helvetiis *faceret*, in eam partem *ituros* atque ibi *futuros Helvetios*, ubi eos Caesar *constituisset* atque *esse voluisset*: sin bello persequi *perseveraret*, *reminisceretur* et veteris incommodi populi Romani, et pristinae virtutis Helvetiorum. Quod improvise unum pagum *adortus esset*, cum ii qui flumen *transissent* suis auxilium ferre non *possent*, ne ob eam rem aut *suae* magno opere virtuti *tribueret*, aut *ipsos despiceret*: *se* ita a patribus majoribusque *suis didicisse*, ut magis virtute quam dolo *contenderent*, aut insidiis *niterentur*. Quare ne *committeret*, ut *is* locus ubi *constitissent* ex calamitate populi Romani et internecione exercitus nomen *caperet*, aut memoriam *proderet*. B. G. i. 13.

#### Direct Discourse.

Si pacem populus Romanus cum Helvetiis *faciet*, in eam partem *ibunt* atque ibi *erunt Helvetii*, ubi eos Caesar *constituerit* atque *esse voluerit*: sin bello persequi *perseverabit*, *reminiscere* [inquit] et veteris incommodi populi Romani, et pristinae virtutis Helvetiorum. Quod improvise unum pagum *adortus es*, cum ii qui flumen *transierant* suis auxilium ferre non *possent*, ne ob eam rem aut *tuae* magno opere virtuti *tribueris*, aut *nos despexeris*: *nos* ita a patribus majoribusque *nostris didicimus*, ut magis virtute quam dolo *contendamus*, aut insidiis *nitamur*. Quare noli committere, ut *hic* locus ubi *constitimus* ex calamitate populi Romani et internecione exercitus nomen *capiat*, aut memoriam *prodat*.

#### Intermediate Clauses.

**NOTE.** — Besides the modal dependent clauses now mentioned, another construction is found in Latin, which has no English equivalent whatever; namely, that of a subjunctive clause subordinate to another *which is itself subordinate*. This is found when any infinitive or subjunctive con-



struction — itself dependent on some leading verb — has another clause dependent on it. In this case the verb of the latter is almost invariably in the subjunctive, subject, however, to the following conditions : 1. that if the subordinate clause is inserted for mere definition or explanation, so that it may be regarded as true independently of the connection in which it stands, its verb will be in the indicative ; 2. that if, on the other hand, it depends on an infinitive or subjunctive *so as to become logically a part of the same expression*, its verb must regularly be in the subjunctive. It often depends entirely upon the feeling of the writer whether the Indicative or Subjunctive shall be used.

**340.** A Relative or other subordinate clause takes the Subjunctive, when it expresses the thought of some other person than the speaker or writer (*informal Indirect discourse*), or when it is an integral part of a Subjunctive clause or equivalent Infinitive<sup>1</sup> (*Attraction*).

**341.** The Subjunctive is used in intermediate clauses to express the thought of some other person —

a. In subordinate clauses in Indirect Discourse (see 336).

b. When the clause depends upon another containing a *wish*, a *command*, or a *question* expressed indirectly, though not indirect discourse proper : as,

animal sentit quid sit quod deceat (Off. i. 6), *an animal feels what it is that is fit.*

hunc sibi ex animo scrupulum, qui se dies noctesque stimulet ac pungat, ut evellatis postulat (Rosc. Am. 2), *he begs you to pluck from his heart this doubt that goads and stings him day and night.* [Here the relative clause is not a part of the Purpose expressed in *evellatis*, but is an assertion made by the subject of *postulat*.]

c. When the main clause of a quotation is merged in the verb of *saying*, or some modifier of it : as,

nisi restituissent statuas, vehementer iis minatur (Verr. iii. 67), *he threatens them violently unless they should restore the statues.* [Here the main clause, "that he will inflict punishment," is contained in *minatur*.]

prohibitio tollendi, nisi pactus esset, vim adhibebat pactioni (id. iv. 14), *the forbidding to take away unless he came to terms gave force to the bargain.*

d. When a *reason* or an *explanatory fact* is introduced by a relative or by *quod* (rarely *quia*) :<sup>2</sup> as,

<sup>1</sup> See note at head of Indirect Discourse, p. 247.

<sup>2</sup> This usage probably originates in Apodosis, the condition being the supposed truth of the speaker, the main subject. (See Indirect Discourse, Note, p. 248.)

*Favonius mihi quod defendissem leviter succensuit* (Att. iii. 1), *Favonius gently chided me for my defence.*

*Pactus omnes libros quos pater suus reliquisset mihi donavit* (id.), *Pactus presented me all the books which [he said] his father had left.*

REMARK. — Under this head, even what the speaker himself thought under other circumstances may have the subjunctive. So also with **quod**, even the verb of *saying* may take the subjunctive. To this use also belong **non quia**, **non quod**, introducing a reason *expressly to deny it*. **Non quo**, **non quin**, introduce a *result clause*, but with nearly the same meaning as **non quod**: as,

*pugiles ingemiscunt, non quod doleant, sed quia omne corpus intenditur* . . . (Tusc. ii. 23), *boxers groan not with pain, but, &c.*

*non quia philosophia . . . percipi non posset* (id. i. 1), *not that philosophy cannot be acquired, &c.*

*non quoniam hoc sit necesse* (Verr. ii. 9), *not that this is necessary.*

**342.** A clause depending upon another subjunctive clause (or equivalent Infinitive) will also take the subjunctive if it is regarded *as an integral part of that clause*:<sup>1</sup> as,

*non pugnabo quominus utrum vellis eligas* (Div. C. 18), *I will not oppose your taking which you will.*

*imperat, dum res adjudicetur, hominem ut asservent: cum judicatum sit, ad se adducant* (Verr. iv. 22), *he orders them, while the affair is under judgment, to keep the man; when he is judged, to bring him to him.*

*etenim quis tam dissoluto animo est, qui haec cum videat, tacere ac negligere possit* (Rosc. Am. 11), *for who is so reckless of spirit, that, when he sees these things, he can keep silent and pass them by?*

*si tibi hoc Siculi dicerent, nonne id dicerent quod cuivis probare deberent* (Div. C. 6), *if the Sicilians said this to you, would they not say a thing which they must prove to everybody?*

*mos est Athenis laudari in contione eos qui sint in proeliis interfecti* (Or. 44), *it is the custom at Athens for those to be publicly eulogized who have been slain in battle.*

<sup>1</sup> The subjunctive in this use is either a Protasis or Apodosis, and partakes of the nature of the clause on which it depends, — or at least of its original nature. In all cases except Purpose and Result, this is clearly seen. In these, the case is undoubtedly the same; as the Purpose has, of course, a future sense, and the Result is a branch of characteristic. (See Note at head.)

It is often difficult to distinguish between this construction and the preceding. Thus, in *imperat ut ea fiant quae opus essent*, **essent** may stand for **sunt**, and then will be Indirect Discourse (under 336. b); or it may stand for **erunt**, and will then be Protasis (under 337).

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## General Rules of Syntax.

1. Nouns meaning the same thing agree in Case.
2. Adjectives agree with nouns in Gender, Number, and Case.
3. Possessive adjectives are used for the Genitive, and in any case may have a genitive in agreement.
4. Relatives agree with their antecedent in Gender and Number ; their Case depending on the construction of their clause.
5. A Verb agrees with its subject in Number and Person.
6. Two or more singular subjects — also collective nouns, with *quisque* and *uterque* — may take a plural verb.
7. The Subject of a finite verb is in the NOMINATIVE.
8. A Noun used to limit or define another, and not meaning the same thing, is put in the GENITIVE.
9. The Genitive is used to denote the author, owner, source, and (with adjectives) measure or quality.
10. Words denoting a Part are followed by the genitive of the word denoting the Whole.
11. Certain genitives of Quantity — as, *magni, parvi, nihili, pluris, minoris*, — are used to denote indefinite Value.
12. Many words of memory and feeling, knowledge or ignorance, likeness or nearness, fulness and want — also verbals, and participles used as adjectives — take the genitive.
13. Verbs of accusing, condemning, acquitting, and admonishing take the genitive of the Charge or Penalty.
14. The DATIVE is the case of the Indirect Object.
15. Words of likeness, fitness, nearness, service, and help, are followed by the dative.
16. Verbs meaning to favor, help, please, trust, and their contraries ; also to believe, persuade, command, obey, serve, resist, envy, threaten, pardon, and spare, take the dative.
17. The dative is used with *esse* to denote the Owner ; also with the participle in *du* to denote the Agent.
18. Most verbs compounded with *ad, ante, con, in, inter, ob, post, prae, pro, sub, super*, take the dative.
19. Verbs of giving, telling, sending, and the like — sometimes of comparing and taking away — take the accusative and dative.
20. The dative is used to denote the Purpose or End ; often with another dative of the person or thing affected.
21. The ACCUSATIVE is the case of the Direct Object.
22. The Subject of the Infinitive mood is in the accusative.
23. Duration of time and extent of space are in the accusative.
24. The accusative is used adverbially, or for specification.
25. Verbs of asking and teaching take two accusatives, one of a person, and the other of a thing.

26. The ABLATIVE is used of cause, manner, means, instrument, quality, specification, and price.
27. The Voluntary Agent after a passive verb is in the ablative with *ab*.
28. Words denoting separation, and plenty or want, — also *opus* and *usus*, signifying need, — govern the ablative.
29. Participles denoting birth or origin take the ablative.
30. The adjectives *dignus*, *indignus*, with many verbals, as *contentus*, *laetus*, *praeditus*, take the ablative.
31. The deponents *utor*, *fruor*, *fungor*, *potior*, *vescor*, and their compounds, take the ablative.
32. The comparative degree may be followed by the ablative.
33. Degree of difference is put in the ablative.
34. Time at or within which is put in the ablative.
35. A subject and predicate in the ablative are used to define the time or circumstances of an action (*Ablative Absolute*).
36. The name of the Town WHERE is in form like the genitive of singular names in *us*, *a*, *um*, otherwise dative or ablative; of that WHITHER in the accusative, and WHENCE in the ablative.  
So of *domus rus* (also, *humi*, *belli*, *militiae*), and many names of Islands.
37. With other words (including names of countries) Prepositions must be used to denote where, whither, or whence.
38. The INFINITIVE is used like a neuter noun, as the Subject or Object, or to complete the action of a verb.
39. The Infinitive is used, with subject-accusative, with expressions of knowing, thinking, telling, and perceiving.
40. The Infinitive is often used for the tenses of the indicative in narration (*Historical Infinitive*).
41. The GERUND, governing the case of its verb, or the Gerundive in agreement with a noun, is construed as a verbal noun.
42. The SUPINE in *um* is used after verbs of motion, to express the purpose of the motion; the Supine in *u* with adjectives.
43. The SUBJUNCTIVE is used independently to denote a wish, command, or concession, also in questions of doubt.
44. Relatives or Conjunctions implying purpose or result — also of characteristic and of relative time — require the Subjunctive.
45. Indirect Questions take a verb in the Subjunctive.
46. The Subjunctive present and perfect are used in future conditions; the imperfect and pluperfect, in those contrary to fact.
47. Dependent Clauses in Indirect Discourse, or in a subjunctive construction, take the Subjunctive.
48. In the sequence of Tenses, primary tenses are followed in the Subjunctive by primary, and secondary by secondary.

For the government of PREPOSITIONS, see page 101.

For the constructions of CASES, see pages 145–183.

Chapter VI. — *Arrangement.*

NOTE. — While in Latin the words do not follow the order of construction, yet they have a regular arrangement ; which, however, is constantly modified for emphasis, harmony, and clearness.

## Normal Order.

343. Regularly the subject stands *first*, followed by its modifiers ; the verb *last*, preceded by the words which depend upon it : as,

civis Romanus sum (*not* sum Romanus civis).

voluptates blandissimæ dominae majores partes animi a virtute detorquent (Off. ii. 10).

REMARK. — This is the order usually to be followed where no emphasis is thrown on any particular word, as in simple narration of fact : as,

Hannibal, imperator factus, | proximo triennio omnes gentes Hispaniæ | bello subegit (Nep. Hann. 3).

a. A predicate nominative, as the most important part of the predicate, is often placed after the copula : as,

qui Athenis est mortuus (id. 24).

haec ad judicandum sunt facillima (id. iii. 6).

b. The forms of *esse* meaning *there is*, &c., often come first in the sentence : as,

sunt quaedam officia quæ aliis magis quam aliis debeantur (id. i. 18).

c. A numeral adjective, or one essential to the meaning of the phrase, goes before its noun ; one simply descriptive commonly follows : as,

omnes homines decet.

est viri magni rebus agitatis punire sotes (Off. i. 24).

omnis actio vacare debet temeritate et neglegentia (id. 29).

cum aliqua perturbatione (id. i. 38).

Laelius et sapiens et amicitiae gloria excellens (Læl. 1).

d. A Demonstrative pronoun precedes the noun, Relatives or Interrogatives stand first in their sentence or clause, Adverbs stand directly before the word they qualify.

Emphasis.

NOTE. — Though the order of words in a Latin sentence often seems quite arbitrary, yet it will be observed that almost every arrangement produces some effect, such as must usually be given in English by emphasis, or stress of voice. In actual practice, what may be called the normal order is rarely found. It is continually altered, either for the sake of Emphasis, — to throw stress on the more important words ; or for the sake of Euphony, — to make the sentence more agreeable to the ear.

344. The normal order of words may be changed or reversed for the sake of emphasis.

a. Particularly, the verb comes first, and the subject last. This makes either or both emphatic : as,

dicebat idem C. Curio (Off. ii. 17).

b. Any word closely connected with the preceding sentence comes first, and with the following last : as,

ac duabus iis personis quas supra dixi tertia adiungitur (Off. i. 32).

objicit [Cato] ut probum M. Nobiliori quod is in provinciam poetas duxisset ; duxerat autem consul ille in Ætoliā ut scimus Ennium (Tusc. i. 2).

maxime perturbantur officia in amicitiiis ; quibus et non tribuere quod recte possis, et tribuere quod non sit æquum, contra officium est (Off. iii. 10).

c. A word or phrase inserted between the parts of compound tenses becomes emphatic : as,

ille reprehensus a multis est (N. D. ii. 38).

d. A modifier of a noun and adjective or participle is often placed between them. So in the gerundive construction : as,

de communi hominum memoria (Tusc. i. 24).

de uno imperatore contra praedones constituendo (Manil. 17).

e. Sometimes a noun and its attribute are separated as far as possible, so as to include less important words : as,

objurgationes etiam nonnunquam incidunt necessariae (Off. i. 38).

f. One pair of ideas is set off against another, either in the same order (*anaphora*), or in exactly the opposite order (*chiasmus*). The latter, which is very common, has its name from the Greek X, on account of the *cross* arrangement. Thus,

rerum copia verborum copiam gignit (De Or. iii. 3, 31).

pro vita hominis nisi hominis vita reddatur (B. G. vi. 16).

leges supplicio improbos afficiunt, defendunt ac tuentur bonos (Fin. iii. 5).

non igitur utilitatem amicitia, sed utilitas amicitiam consecuta est (Lael. 14). Here the arrangement of cases only is chiasmic, that of ideas is regular.]



*g.* Different forms of the same word are often placed together, also words from the same root.

*h.* A favorite order with the poets is the interlocked, by which the attribute of one pair comes between the parts of the other. This is often joined with chiasmus: as,

et superjecto pavidæ natarunt aequore damæ (Hor. Od. i. 2, 11).  
arma nondum expiatis uncta cruoribus (id. ii. 1, 5).

*i.* Almost universally the MAIN WORD of the sentence is put first (rarely last). This may be simply the emphatic word, containing the idea most prominent in the writer's mind (*emphasis*); or it may be contrasted with some other word preceding or following (*antithesis*).

#### Special Rules.

345. The following are special rules of arrangement:—

*a.* Prepositions regularly precede their nouns (except *tenus* and *versus*); but the monosyllabic prepositions are often placed between a noun and adjective: as,

quem ad modum; quam ob rem; magno cum metu; omnibus cum copiis; nulla in re.

*b.* *Itaque* regularly comes first in its sentence or clause; *enim*, *autem*, *vero*, *quoque*, never first, but usually second, sometimes third if the second word is emphatic; *quidem* never first, but after the emphatic word; *ne . . . quidem* include the emphatic word or words.

*c.* *Inquam*, *inquit*, *credo*, *opinor*, *quaeso*, used parenthetically, always follow one or more words.

*d.* The negative precedes the word it especially affects; but if it belongs to no one word, it begins the sentence.

*e.* In the arrangement of clauses, the Relative clause more often comes first in Latin, and usually contains the antecedent noun: as,

quos amisimus cives eos Martes vis perculit ("those citizens, whom &c.": Cic. Marc. 6).

*f.* Any clause, principal or subordinate, is suspended, when any subordinate connective appears between the first and last word of that clause; and the rest of the clause does not appear till the whole of the subordinate one is finished. Thus,—

ATQUE EGO, *ut vidi quos* maximo furore et scelere esse inflammatos sciebam, *eos* vobiscum esse et Romæ remansisse, in eo omnes dies noctesque CONSUMPSI, *ut* quid agerent, quid molirentur, sentirem ac viderem.—Cic. Cat. iii. 2.

Here the leading clause *Atque ego* is suspended by the relative clause *ut vidi*, which again is interrupted by the words *quos . . sciebam*. The latter clause being now complete, the object of *vidi* is seen to be the infinitive clause *eos . . remansisse*, the antecedent coming after the relative. The main clause is now resumed, its verb being evidently *consumpsi*, which is the predicate of *ego*. This, again, is followed by *ut . . viderem* in apposition with *eo*, this clause being itself suspended by the indirect questions *quid . . molirentur*.

#### Structure.

NOTE. — Latin expresses the relation of words to each other by *inflection* rather than by *position*, like modern languages. Hence its structure not only admits of great variety in the arrangement of words, but is especially favorable to that form of sentence which is called a Period. In a period, the sense is expressed by the sentence *as a whole*, and is held in suspense till the delivery of the last word, which usually expresses the main action or motive.

An English sentence does not often admit this form of structure. It was imitated, sometimes with great skill and beauty, by many of the early writers of English prose; but its effect is better seen in poetry, in such a passage as the following: —

“ High on a throne of royal state, which far  
Outshone the wealth of Ormus and of Ind,  
Or where the gorgeous East with richest hand  
Showers on her kings barbaric pearl and gold,  
Satan exalted sat.”

*Paradise Lost*, Book II. 1-5.

But in argument or narrative, the best English writers more commonly give short clear sentences, each distinct from the rest, and saying one thing by itself. In Latin, on the contrary, the story or argument is viewed as a whole; and a logical relation among all its parts is carefully indicated, forming one compact group. Hence —

**346.** In the structure of the Period, the following rules are to be observed: —

*a.* In general the main subject or object is put in the main clause, not in the subordinate ones: as,

Hannibal cum recensuisset auxilia Gades profectus est, *when Hannibal had reviewed, &c.*

Volsci exiguam spem in armis, alia undique abscissa, cum tentassent, praeter cetera adversa, loco quoque iniquo ad pugnam congressi, iniquiore ad fugam, cum ab omni parte caederentur, ad preces a certamine

versi, dedito imperatore traditisque armis, sub jugum missi, cum singulis vestimentis, ignominiae cladisque pleni dimittuntur (Liv. iv. 10). [Here the main fact is *the return of the Volscians*, which is given in the first and last words of the period; the circumstances of the surrender, &c., which in English would be detailed in a number of brief independent sentences, are put in the several subordinate clauses.]

*b.* Clauses are usually arranged in the natural order of time or logical sequence, — cause before result; purpose, manner, and the like before the act.

There are, however, many exceptions, from the tendency to put the more important first, or else last.

*c.* In co-ordinate clauses, the copulative conjunctions are frequently omitted (*asyndeton*), the connection being made clear by the position of words and by antithesis.

*d.* A change of subject, where required, is marked by the introduction of a Pronoun, if the new subject has already been mentioned in the preceding sentence. But the change of subject may often be avoided by the change of structure, — the less important being merged in the greater by aid of participles or subordinate phrases: as,

dolorem si non potero frangere occultabo, *if I cannot conquer the pain, I will hide IT.*

quem ut barbari incendium effugisse viderunt, telis eminus emissis interfecerunt, *when the barbarians saw that he had escaped, THEY threw darts at HIM, and killed HIM.*

celeriter confecto negotio, in hiberna legiones reverterunt, *the matter was soon finished, AND the legions, &c.*

## PART THIRD.

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### RULES OF VERSE (PROSODY).

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#### Chapter I. — *Quantity.*

NOTE. — The earliest poetry of the Indo-European people seems to have been originally rather an accented poetry, more like our own, without regard to the natural quantity of the syllables. But the Greeks developed a form of poetry which, like music, regarded very carefully the natural quantities of syllables; and the Latins borrowed their forms in classical times from them. Hence Latin poetry does not depend, like ours, upon accent and rhyme; but is measured, like musical strains, by the length of syllables. Especially does it differ from ours in not regarding the accent of the word, but substituting for that an entirely different system of metrical accent or *ictus* (see 358), which depended upon the character of the measure used, falling regularly on the long syllables. Each syllable is considered as either long or short, — in Quantity or *length* (not in Quality or *sound*, as we speak of the long or short vowel-sounds in English); a long syllable being generally reckoned in length equal to two short ones (for exceptions see 355. *c, d*).

The quantity of radical or stem-syllables — as of short *a* in *pater* or of long *a* in *mater* — can be learned only by observation or practice, unless determined by the general rules of Quantity. Most of the rules of Prosody are only arbitrary rules for the purpose of memory; the syllables being long or short *because the ancients pronounced them so*. In those cases which cannot be conveniently grouped, the quantity is shown by the actual practice of the ancients, and is said to be determined *by the authority of Poets*, — the principal means we have of learning it. In some inscriptions, however, the long vowels are distinguished in various ways, — by marks over the letters, or by doubling.

Owing to the practice of Roman poets of borrowing very largely from the poetry and mythology of the Greeks, numerous Greek words, especially proper names, make an important part of Latin poetry. These words are generally employed in accordance with the Greek, and not the Latin, laws of quantity. Where these vary in any important point, they will be noticed in the rules given below.

## 1. — General Rules.

347. The following are General Rules of Quantity (compare 18):—

a. VOWEL. A vowel before another vowel or *h* is Short: as, *vīa*, *trāho*. But—

1. In the genitive form *ius*, *i* is long. It is, however, sometimes made short in verse; and in *alterius* is commonly short.

2. In the fifth declension (genitive and dative singular), *e* is long between two vowels: as, *diēi*; but is short in *fidēi*, *rēi*, *spēi*.

3. In *fio*, *i* is long, except when followed by *er*: as, *fio*, *fiebam*, *fiam*, *fieri*, *fierem*.

4. In the terminations *āius* and *ēius*, *a* and *e* are long: as in *Gāius*, *Pompēius*; in some forms of *āio*, and in genitives in *āi*.

5. In many Greek proper names, the vowel in Latin represents a long vowel or diphthong, and is consequently long: as, *Trōls*, *Thālia*, *hērōds*. But many Greek words are more or less Latinized in this respect: as, *Academīa*, *chorēa*.

6. In *ēheu* and *dīus* (for *dīvus*), and sometimes in *Diāna* and *ohe*, the first syllable is long.

b. DIPHTHONG. A Diphthong is Long: as, *foēdus*, *cūi*, *cāelum*, *dēinde* (*u* with *q* does not count as a vowel).

But the preposition *prae* in compounds is generally short before a vowel (as in *prae-ustis*, *Æn.* vii. 524).

c. CONTRACTION. A vowel formed by contraction (Crisis) is Long: as *i* in *nīl* (for *nīhīl*); *currūs* (genitive, for *currūts*). But often two syllables are united by Synæresis, as in *pariētibus* (*par-yetibus*), without contraction (*Synezesis*).

d. POSITION. A syllable in which a short vowel comes before two consonants or a double consonant—also before the letter *j*—is long: as, *māgnus*, *dūx*, *pējor*, *et vēntis*, *gāza* (but *adhuc*).

But if the two consonants are a mute followed by *l* or *r*, the syllable is Common,—that is, it may be either long or short in verse: as in *alācris*, *pātribus*, *rēfluō*.<sup>1</sup>

REMARK.—The *y* or *v* resulting from synæresis has the effect of a consonant: as, *ābietis*, *flūviorum* (*flūvius*). And conversely, when the semivowel is vocalized, quantity is lost: as in *sīluæ* = *sīlvæ* (Hor.).

<sup>1</sup> This usage is more or less arbitrary, and varies with different words: thus (in Virgil) the *a* in *patris*, etc., is almost invariably short; and the *i* in *nigro*- and its derivatives is almost always long. In *dyūgis*, *quadrīugis*, the *i* is short.

*e.* In Early Latin, *s* at the end of words was not sounded, and hence does not make position with another consonant. In many other cases in the comic poets two consonants do not make position, especially in pronouns and particles: as, *ille*, *iste*, *nēmpē*.

REMARK. — A short syllable, made long by the rule in *d*, is said to be long by POSITION: as, in *docētne*. In *docēsne*, the same syllable is long by the general rule. The rules of Position do not, in general, apply to final vowels.

## 2. — Final Syllables.

348. The Quantity of Final Syllables is determined by the following Rules: —

1. Words of one syllable ending in a vowel are Long: as, *mē*, *tū*, *hī*, *nē*.

The attached particles *-nē*, *-quē*, *-vē*, *-cē*, *-ptē*, and *rē* (*rēd-*) are short; *se-* is long: as, *sēcedit*, *exercitumquē rēducit*. But *re* is often long in *rēligio*, (*relligio*), *rētuli* (*rettuli*), *rēpuli* (*reppuli*).

2. Nouns and adjectives of one syllable are Long: as, *sōl*, *ōs* (*ōris*), *bōs*, *vīs*.

EXCEPTIONS. — *cōr* (sometimes long), *fēl*, *lāc*, *mēl*, *ōs* (*ossis*) *vīr*.

3. Most monosyllabic Particles are Short: as, *ān*, *īn*, *cīs*, *nēc*, *pēr*. But *crās*, *cūr*, *ēn*, *nōn*, *quīn*, *sīn* — with adverbs in *o*: as, *hīc*, *hūc*, *sic* — are long; *tot* and *quot* indeclinable are also short.

4. Final *a* in words declined by cases is Short, except in the ablative singular of the first declension; in all other words it is Long: as, *eā stellā* (nom.), *cum eā stellā* (abl.); *frustrā*, *vocā* (imperat.), *posteā*, *trigintā*; also, *quā* (for *quae*, plural).

EXCEPTIONS. — *eīd*, *itā*, *quīd*, *putā* (*suppose*); and, in late use, *trigintā*, etc.

5. Final *e* is Short, as in *nubē*, *ducitē*, *saepē*. Except —

1. In nouns of the fifth declension: as, *fidē* (also *famē*), *hodiē* (*hōc diē*), *quārē* (*quā rē*).

2. In adverbs formed from adjectives of the first and second declension, with others of like form: as, *altē*, *miserē*, *apertē*, *saepissimē*.

3. In the imperative singular of the second conjugation: as, *vidē*, *monē*.

EXCEPTIONS. — *benē*, *malē*; *ferē*, *fermē*; also (rarely), *cavē*, *habē*, *tacē*, *valē*, *vidē*; *infernē*, *supernē*.

6. Final *i* is long : as in *turrī, fili, audī*. But it is Common in *mihī, tibi, sibi, ibi, ubi*; and Short in *nist, quasi, cut* (when making two syllables), and in Greek vocatives, as *Alexī*.

7. Final *o* is Common ; but long in datives and ablatives, also, almost invariably, in verbs, and in nouns of the third declension.

EXCEPTIONS. — *citō, modō, ilicō, profectō, dummodō, immō, egō, duō, octō*.

8. Final *u* is Long ; final *y* is Short.

9. Final *as, es, os*, are Long ; final *is, us, ys*, are Short : *as, nefas, rupes, servos, honos* ; *hostis, amicus, Tethys*.

EXCEPTIONS. — *as* is short in Greek plural accusatives, as *lampadās* ; and in *andēs*.

*es* is short in nouns of the third declension (lingual) having a short vowel in the stem (but *sedēs*, etc.) : *as, milēs (itis), obēs, (idis)*, — except *abiēs, ariēs, pariēs, pēs* ; in the present of *esse (ēs, adēs)* ; in the preposition *penēs* and in the plural of Greek nouns, as *hērōēs, lampadēs*.

*os* is short in *compōs, impōs* ; in the Greek nominative ending as *barbitōs* ; also *o* for later *u* in the second declension, as *servōs* (nominative).

*is* in plural cases is long, as in *bonis, nōbis, vōbis, omnis*, (accusative plural) ; *fis, sis, vis*, (with *quīvis*, etc.), *velis, mālīs, nōlis* ; in *gratis, foris* (properly plurals) ; in the second person singular of the fourth conjugation, as, *audis* (where it is the stem vowel) ; and sometimes in the forms in *-eris* (perfect subjunctive), where it was originally long.

*us* is long (by contraction) in the genitive singular and nominative and accusative plural of the fourth declension ; and in nouns of the third declension having *ū* long in the stem : *as, virtūs (utis), incūs (ūdis)*. But *pecūs, ūdis*.

10. Of other final syllables, those ending in a consonant, except *o*, are Short : *as, ād, āc, istūo, amāt, amātūr*.

EXCEPTIONS. — *donēc, fūc, nēc*, sometimes *hēc* ; *en, nōn, quān, sīn* ; *crās, plūs* ; *cūr, pār, aēr*.

### 3. — Penultimate Syllables.

349. A Noun is said to increase, when in any case it has more syllables than in the nominative singular.

A Verb is said to increase, when in any part it has more syllables than in the Stem, inclusive of the final vowel : as, *amā-*, *tegē-*, *capī-*.<sup>1</sup>

a. The final syllable of an inflected word is called the Termination ; that immediately preceding is called the Increment.

b. In such words as *stellārum*, *corpōris*, *amātis*, *tegitis*, the penultimate syllable is called the increment. In *inimicibus*, *amāvērītis*, the syllables marked are called the first, second, and third increments of the noun or verb.

350. In the increment of nouns and adjectives, **a** and **o** are generally Long ; **e**, **i**, **u**, **y**, generally Short : as,

*aetātis*, *honōris*, *servōrum* ; *opōris*, *carmīnis*, *murmūris*, *pecūdīs*, *chlamydis*. Exceptions are : —

ā : — *baccar* (*āris*), *hepar* (*ātis*), *jubar* (*āris*), *lar* (*lāris*), *mas* (*māris*), *nectar* (*āris*), *par* (*pāris*), *sal* (*sālīs*), *vas* (*vādis*), *daps* (*dāpis*), *fax* (*fācis*), *anthrax* (*ācis*).

ō : — neuters of the third declension (except *ōs*, *ōris*) : as, *corpus* (*ōris*) ; also, *arbor* (*ōris*), *scrobs* (*scrōbis*), *ops* (*ōpis*), *bos* (*bōvis*).

ē : — increments of fifth declension ; also *heres* (*ēdis*), *lex* (*lēgis*), *locuples* (*ētis*), *merces* (*ēdis*), *plebs* (*plēbis*), *quies* (*ētis*), *rex* (*rēgis*), *ver* (*vēris*), *crater* (*-ēris*). But see § 347. 2.

ī : — most nouns and adjectives in *īx* : as, *felīcis*, *radīcis* (except *fīlix*, *nīx*, *strīx*) ; *dis* (*dītis*), *glis* (*glītis*), *lis* (*lītis*), *vis* (*vīres*), *Quirītes*, *Samnītes*.

ū : — forms from nouns in *ūs* : as, *palūdis*, *tellūris*, *virtūtis* ; also, *lux* (*lūcis*), *frux* (*frūgis*).

351. In the increment of Verbs the characteristic vowels are as follows : —

1. Of the first conjugation **ā** : as, *amāre*, *amātur*.
2. Of the second conjugation **ē** : as, *monēre*, *monētur*.
3. Of the third conjugation **ē**, **ī** : as, *tegēre*, *tegitur*.
4. Of the fourth conjugation **ī** : as, *audīre*, *audītur*.

Exc. — *do* and its compounds have **ā** : as, *dāre*, *circumdābat*.

<sup>1</sup> The rules of Increment are purely arbitrary, as the syllables are long or short according to the proper quantity of the Stem or of the formative terminations. The quantity of noun-stems appears in the schedule of the third declension (see 67) ; and that of terminations is seen under the various inflections, where it is better to learn them. For quantities of Greek stems, see 63 (p. 25).



a. In other verbal increments (not stem-vowels) —

a is always Long: as, *moneāris*, *tegāmus*.

e is Long: as, *tegēbam*, *āudiēbar*. But it is short before -ram, -rim, -ro; in the future personal endings -bēris, -bēre; and sometimes in the perfect -erunt (as *stēlērunique comae*, *Æn.* ii. 774).

i is Long in forms after the analogy of the fourth conjugation: as, *petīvi*, *laccessitus* (in others short: as, *monitus*); also in the subjunctive present of *esse* and *velle* (*sīmus*, *velimus*); and (rarely) in the endings -rimus, -ritis; but short in the future forms *amabitis*, etc.

o is found only in imperatives, and is always Long.

u is Short in *sūmus*, *volūmus*, *quaesūmus*; in the Supine and its derivatives it is long: as, *solūtūrus*.

b. Perfects and Supines of two syllables lengthen the first-syllable:<sup>1</sup> as, *jūvi*, *jūtum* (*jūvo*), *vidi*, *vīsum* (*video*); *fūgi* (*fūgio*).

EXCEPTIONS. — *bibi*, *dēdi* (*do*), *fidi* (*findo*), *scīdi* (*scindo*), *stēti* (*sto*), *sīti* (*sisto*), *tūli* (*fero*); — *cītum* (*cicio*), *dātum* (*do*), *ītum* (*eo*), *lītum* (*lino*), *qūtum* (*queo*), *rītum* (*reor*), *rūtum* (*ruo*), *sātum* (*sero*), *sītum* (*sino*), *stātum* (*sto* or *sisto*). In some compounds of *sto*, *stātum* is found long, as *prostātum*.

c. Reduplicated perfects shorten both syllables: as, *cēcīdi* (*cādo*), *dīdīci* (*disco*), *pūpūgi* (*pungo*); also *cūcurri* (*curro*), *tētēdi* (*tendo*), *mōmōrdi* (*mordeo*). But *cēcīdi* from *caedo*, *pepēdi* from *pēdo*.

352. The following terminations are preceded by a long vowel.

1. -al, -ar: as *vectigal*, *pulvinar*; and numeral endings, as *vicēsīmus*.

EXCEPTIONS. — *anīmal*, *cāpītal*, *jūbar*.

2. -brum, -crum, -trum: as, *lāvācrum*, *dēlūbrum*, *vērātrum*.

3. -do, -ga, -go: as, *formido*, *aurīga*, *imāgo*.

EXCEPTIONS. — *cādo*, *divīdo*, *ēdo*, *mōdo*, *sōlīdo*, *spādo*, *trēpīdo*; *callīga*, *fūga*, *tōga*, *plāga*; *āgo*, *ēgo*, *tēgo*, *nēgo*, *rēgo*.

4. -le, -les, -lis: as, *ancile*, *miles*, *crudēlis*, *hostilis*.

<sup>1</sup> Either by contraction or vowel-increase, perhaps both.

EXCEPTIONS. — *māle*; *indōles*, *sūbōles*; *grācilis*, *hūmilis*, *sīmīlis*, *stērilis*; and verbal adjectives in *nis*: as, *amābilis*, *dōcilis*, *fācilis*, *terribilis*.

5. -*ma*, -*men*, -*mentum*: as, *poēma*, *flūmen*, *jumentum*.

EXCEPTIONS. — *ānīma*, *lacrima*, *victīma*; *tāmen*, *colūmen*; with *rēgimen* and the like from verb-stems.

6. -*mus*, -*nus*, -*rus*, -*sus*, -*tus*, -*neus*, -*rius*: as, *extrēmus*, *sūpīnus*, *octōni*, *sēvērus*, *fūmōsus*, *pēritus*, *sēnārius*, *extrāneus*.

EXCEPTIONS. — (a.) *I* before -*mus*: as, *finīllimus*, *māritimus*, (except *blimus*, *trīmus* *quadrimus*, *ōplimus*, *mīnus*, *limus*); and in superlatives (except *imius*, *primus*); *dōmus*, *hūmus*, *nēmus*, *cāldmus*, *thāldmus*.

(b.) *I* before -*nus*: as in *crastīnus*, *fraxīnus*, and the like (except *mātūtīnus*, *vespertīnus*, *rēpentīnus*); *āsīnus*, *cōmīnus*, *ēmīnus*, *dōmīnus*, *fācīnus*, *prōtīnus*, *terminus*, *vāllīcīnus*; *mānus*, *ōcednus*, *plādānus*; *gēnus*; *bōnus*, *ōnus*, *sōnus*. But *divīnus* and the like.

(c.) *ē* before -*rus*: as, *mērus*, *hēdēra* (except *prōcērus*, *sincērus*, *sēvērus*); also, *barbārus*, *chōrus*, *nūrus*, *pīrus*; *sāttira*, *amphōra*, *ancōra*, *līra*, *purpūra*; *fōrum*, *pārum*.

(d.) *lātus*, *mētus*, *vētus*, *dīgītus*, *servītūs*, *spīrītus*; *quōtus*, *tōtus*; *hābītus*, and the like, *anhelītus*.

7. -*na*, -*ne*, -*nis*: as, *carīna*, *māne*, *inānis*.

EXCEPTIONS. — *advēna*, *dōmīna*, *fēmīna*, *māchīna*, *mīna*, *gēna*, *pāgina*; *bēne*, *sīne*; *cānis*, *cīnis*, *jūvēnis*.

8. -*re*, -*ria*, -*ta*, -*tis*: as, *altāre*, *sālūtāris*, *mōnēta*, *immītis*.

EXCEPTIONS. — *māre*, *hīlāris*, *rōta*, *nōta*, *sītis*, *pōtis*, and most nouns in -*ita*.

9. -*tim*, -*tum*, and syllables beginning with *v*: as, *privātīm*, *quercētum*, *ōltiva*.

EXCEPTIONS. — *affātīm*, *stātīm*; *nīvis* (*nix*); *brēvis*, *grāvis*, *lēvis* (*light*); *nōvus*, *nōvem*; and several verb roots (as, *jūvo*, *fāveo*), also *ōvis*, *bōvis*, *jōvis*.

10. -*dex*, -*lex*, -*mex*, -*rex*, -*dix*, -*nix*: and the numeral endings -*ginti*, *gintā*: as, *jūdex*, *īlex*, *rādix*, *vīginti*, *trīginta*.

EXCEPTIONS. — *cūlex*, *sīlex*, *rūmex*.

353. The following terminations are preceded by a short vowel:—

1. -*ous*, -*dae*, -*lus*: as, *rustīcus*, *cāldus*, *glādiōlus*.

EXCEPTIONS, — *ōpācus*, *āmicus*; *apricus*, *ficus*, *mendīcus*, *pūācus*; *fidus*, *nīdus*, *sīdus*; and *ū* before *-dus*: as, *crūdus*, *nūdus*; *ē* before *-lus*, as *phāsēlus* (except *gēlus*, *scēlus*); *āsīlus*; *lūcus*.

2. -no, -nor, -ro, -ror, in verbs: as, *destīno*, *crīmīnor*, *gēro*, *quēror*.

EXCEPTIONS. — *festīno*, *prōpīno*, *sāgīno*, *ōpīnor*, *inclīno*; *dēclāro*, *spēro*, *spīro*, *ōro*, *dūro*, *mīror*.

3. -ba, -bo, -pa, -po: as, *fāba*, *bībo*, *lūpa*, *crēpo*.

EXCEPTIONS. — *glēba*, *scriba*; *būbo*, *nūbo*, *scribo*; *pāpa*, *pūpa*, *rīpa*, *scōpa*, *stūpa*; *cāpo*, *rēpo*, *stīpo*.

4. -tas (in nouns), -ter and -tus (in adverbs): as, *cīvītas*, *fortīter*, *penītus*.

5. -culus, -cellus, -lentus, -tudo: as, *fascīculus*, *ōcellus*, *lūcū-lentus*, *magnītudo*.

354. The following are the rules for the quantity of Derivatives:—

a. Forms from the same STEM retain the original quantity: as, *amo*, *amavisti*; *gēnus*, *gēneris*.

EXCEPTIONS. — 1. *bōs*, *lār*, *mās*, *pār*, *pēs*, *sāl*, *vās* — also *arbōs* (not *arbōr*) — have a long vowel in the nominative from short stems.

2. Nouns in *or*, genitive *ōris*, have the vowel shortened before the final *r*: as, *honōr*. (But this shortening is comparatively late, so that in Plautus and some inscriptions these nominatives are often found long.)

3. Many verb-forms with original long vowel shorten it before final *r* or *t*: as, *amēt*, *dicerēt* (compare *amēmus*), *audīt*, *fīt*. (The final syllable in *t* of the perfect seems to have been originally long, but to have been shortened under this rule.)

b. Forms from the same ROOT often vary in quantity from vowel increase (see 10. a, 158. a); as, *dīco* (cf. *maledīcus*), *dūco* (*dūcis*), *fīdo* (*perfīdus*), *vōcis* (*vōco*), *lēgio* (*lēgo*).

c. COMPOUNDS retain the quantity of the words which compose them: as, *occlīdo* (*cādo*), *occlīdo* (*caedo*), *inīquus* (*aequus*).

d. Greek words compounded with *πρo* have *o* short, as *prōphēta*, *prōlōgus*. Some Latin compounds of *pro* have *o* short, as *prōficiscor*, *prōfiteor*. Compounds with *ne* vary: as, *nēfas*, *nēgo*, *nēqueo*, *nēquis*, *nēquam*. So *dejēro* and *pejēro* from *jūro*.

Chapter II. — *Rhythm.*

NOTE. — The essence of the Rhythm of poetry is the regular recurrence of syllables which are pronounced with more stress than those intervening. To produce this effect in its perfection, precisely equal times should occur between the recurrence of the stress. But, in the application of rhythm to words to form poetry, the exactness of the intervals of time is sacrificed somewhat to the necessary length of the words ; and, on the other hand, the words are forced somewhat in their pronunciation, to produce more nearly the proper intervals of time. These two adaptations take place in very different degrees ; one language disregarding more the intervals of time, and another more the pronunciation of the words.

The Greek language early developed a very strict rhythmical form of poetry, in which the intervals of time were all-important. The earliest Latin, on the other hand, — as in the Saturnian and Fescennine verse, — was not so restricted. But the pure metrical forms were afterwards adopted from the Greek, so that all the principal poetry with which we have to do follows for the most part Greek rules, which require the formal division of words (like music) into measures of equal times, technically called Feet. In poetry that was sung doubtless the strict rhythm was more closely followed in practice than in that which was declaimed or intoned. In neither language, however, is the time perfectly preserved, even in single measures ; and there are some cases in which the regularity of the true time between the ictuses is disturbed.

The Greeks and Latins both distinguished syllables of two kinds in regard to the length of time required for their pronunciation, viz., *longs* and *shorts*, in the ratio of two to one. But it must not be supposed that all long syllables were of equal length, or even that in a given passage each long had just twice the length of the contiguous shorts. The ratio was only approximate at best, though necessarily more exact in singing than in recitation. Nor are longs and shorts the only forms of syllables that are found. In some cases a long syllable was protracted, so as to have the time of three or even of four shorts, and often a long or two shorts were pronounced in less than their proper time, though doubtless distinguishable in time from one short (see 355. c, d.). Sometimes a syllable naturally short seems to have been slightly prolonged, so as to represent a long, though in most (not all) cases the apparent irregularity can be otherwise explained. In a few cases, also, a pause takes the place of one or more syllables to fill out the required length of the measure. This could, of course, take place only at the end of a word : hence the importance of Cæsura and Diæresis in prosody (see 358).

## Measures.

355. Rhythm consists of the division of musical sound into MEASURES or FEET. The most natural division of musical time is into measures consisting of either two or three equal parts,<sup>1</sup> besides which, the ancients also distinguished those of five equal parts.<sup>2</sup>

REMARK. — The divisions of musical time are marked by a stress of voice on one or the other part of the measure, called the ICTUS (*beat*), or metrical accent (see 358).

a. The unit of length in Prosody is *one short syllable*. This is called a MORA. It is represented by the sign  $\cup$ , or in musical notation by the *quaver*,  $\text{♪}$ .

b. A long syllable is regularly equal to two *mora*, and is represented by the sign  $\_$ , or by the *crotchet*  $\text{♩}$ .

c. A long syllable may be *protracted*, so as to occupy the time of three or four *mora*; this is represented by the sign  $\_$  ( $\text{♪} \text{ '}$ ),  $\_$  ( $\text{♪} \text{ '}$ ).

d. A long syllable may be *contracted*, so as to occupy only the time of a short one: this has been represented by the sign  $>$ .

e. A short syllable may be contracted so as to occupy less than one *mora*.

f. Pauses sometimes occur at the end of verses or series to fill up the time. A pause of one *mora* in a measure is indicated by the sign  $\wedge$ ; one of two *mora* by the sign  $\bar{\wedge}$ .

g. One or more syllables are sometimes placed before the proper beginning of the measure. Such syllables are called an ANACRISIS or *pre.ude*.<sup>3</sup> It is regularly equal to the unaccented part of the measure.




<sup>1</sup> Making what is called in music "double" or "triple" time. These measures in Prosody are commonly called "feet," following the usage of the Greek and Latin grammarians.

<sup>2</sup> This division is not unknown to modern music, although rare.




<sup>3</sup> The same thing occurs in modern poetry, and in modern music any unaccented syllables at the beginning are treated as an anacrusis, i. e. they make an incomplete measure before the first bar. This was not the case in ancient music. The ancients seem to have treated any unaccented syllable at the beginning as belonging to the following accented ones, so as to make with them a foot or measure. Thus it would seem that the original form of Indo-European poetry was iambic in its structure, or at least accented the second syllable rather than the first.

**356.** The measures most frequently employed in Latin verse, together with their musical notation, are the following:—




*a. Triple or Unequal Measures ( $\frac{3}{8}$ ).<sup>1</sup>*

1. TROCHEE ( $\underline{\text{—}} \cup$  = ): as, *rēgīs*.
2. IAMBUS ( $\cup \underline{\text{—}}$  = ): as, *dūcēs*.
3. TRIBRACH<sup>2</sup> ( $\cup \cup \cup$  = ): as, *hōmīnīs*.





*b. Double or Equal Measures ( $\frac{3}{4}$ ).*

1. DACTYL ( $\underline{\text{—}} \cup \cup$  = ): as, *cōnsūlīs*.
2. ANAPÆST ( $\cup \cup \underline{\text{—}}$  = ): as, *mōnītōs*.
3. SPONDEE ( $\underline{\text{—}} \underline{\text{—}}$  = ): as, *rēgēs*.

*c. Six-timed Measures ( $\frac{3}{2}$ ).*

1. IONIC *a majore* ( $\underline{\text{—}} \underline{\text{—}} \cup \cup$  = ): as, *cōnfēcērdt*.
2. IONIC *a minore* ( $\cup \cup \underline{\text{—}} \underline{\text{—}}$  = ): as, *rētūlīssēnt*.
3. CHORIAMBUS ( $\underline{\text{—}} \cup \cup \underline{\text{—}}$  = ): *cōntūlērānt*.

*d. Quinary or Hemiolic<sup>3</sup> Measures ( $\frac{5}{4}$ ).*

1. CRETIC ( $\underline{\text{—}} \cup \underline{\text{—}}$  = ): as, *cōnsūlēs*.
2. PÆON *primus* ( $\underline{\text{—}} \cup \cup \cup$  = ): as *cōnsūlībūs*.
3. PÆON *quartus* ( $\cup \cup \cup \underline{\text{—}}$  = ): as, *līlīnērt*.
4. BACCHIUS ( $\cup \underline{\text{—}} \underline{\text{—}}$  = ): as, *āmīcōs*.

<sup>1</sup> Called *diplasic*, the two parts (Thesis and Arsis) being in the ratio of 2 to 1. The rhythm of the Trochee and Iambus is essentially the same. A trochaic series with an *anacrusis* becomes iambic, and an iambic with the loss of its unaccented part becomes trochaic. The same is true of the dactyl and anapæst, and the two Ionics. There is no reason to believe, however, that the accented beginning is original, and the opposite form produced by anacrusis. On the contrary the probability is the other way.



<sup>2</sup> Not a fundamental foot, but found only as the resolution of a Trochee or Iambus.

<sup>3</sup> Called *hemiolic*, the two parts being in the ratio of 1 to 1½, or of 3 to 2.

e. Several compound measures are mentioned by the grammarians, viz.; *Antibacchius* (— — ∪), *Proceleusmatic* (∪ ∪ ∪ ∪), the 2d and 3d *Pæon*, having a long syllable in the 2d and 3d place, with three short ones; 1st, 2d, 3d, and 4th *Epitritus*, having a short syllable in the 1st, 2d, 3d, and 4th place, with three long ones. None of them, however, are needed, to explain rhythmically all the forms of ancient verse.

NOTE. — Feet with these apparent quantities do not always occupy the same time in the measure, but are contracted or prolonged to suit the series in which they occur. They are then called *irrational*, because the thesis and arsis do not have integral ratios. Such are:—

IRRATIONAL SPONDEE: — > = .

CYCLIC DACTYL: ~ ∪ =  (or nearly .

CYCLIC ANAPÆST: = the same reversed.

IRRATIONAL TROCHÆE: — > = .

Of feet and combinations of feet (sometimes extending to an entire verse, and controlled by a single leading accent), the following are recognized, assuming  $\frac{1}{8}$  to be the unit of musical time:—

$\frac{3}{8}$ ,  $\frac{4}{8}$ ,  $\frac{5}{8}$ ,  $\frac{6}{8}$ ,  $\frac{9}{8}$ ,  $\frac{10}{8}$ ,  $\frac{12}{8}$ ,  $\frac{15}{8}$ ,  $\frac{16}{8}$ ,  $\frac{18}{8}$ ,  $\frac{20}{8}$ ,  $\frac{25}{8}$ .

Narrative poetry was written for rhythmical recitation, or Chant, with instrumental accompaniment; and Lyrical poetry for rhythmical melody, or singing. It must be borne in mind that in ancient music—which in this differs widely from modern—the rhythm of the melody was identical with the rhythm of the text. The lyric poetry was to be sung; the poet was musician and composer, as well as author. To this day a poet is said conventionally to “sing.”

Thus a correct understanding of the rhythmical structure of the Verse gives us the exact *time*, though not the *tune*, to which it was actually sung. The exact time, however, as indicated by the succession of long and short syllables, was varied according to certain laws of so-called “Rhythmic,” as will be explained below. In reading ancient verse it is necessary to bear in mind not only the variations in the relation of length of syllables, but the occasional pause necessary to fill out the measure; and to remember that the rhythmical accent is the only one of importance, though the words should be distinguished carefully, and the sense preserved. Do not *scan*, but read metrically.

357. In many cases measures of the same time may be substituted for each other, a long syllable taking the place

of two short ones, or two short ones the place of one long one. In the former case the measure is said to be *contracted*; in the latter, to be *resolved*. Thus:—

a. A Spondee (— —) may take the place of a dactyl (— ∪ ∪) or anapæst (∪ ∪ —); and a Tribrach (∪ ∪ ∪) of a trochee (— ∪) or Iambus (∪ —). The optional substitution of a long for two short syllables is represented by the sign ∞.

b. Another form of dactyl when substituted for a trochee—a spondee also being admissible—is represented thus, — ∞.

c. When a long syllable having the Ictus (358. a) is resolved, the ictus properly belongs to both the resulting short syllables; but the accent to indicate it is placed on the former: as,

núnc ĕxpĕrlār | sítne ācētō | tíbī cōr ācre In | pĕctore.

*Bacch.* 405.

#### The Musical Accent.

358. That part of the measure which receives the stress of voice (the musical accent) is called the *THESIS*; the other part is called the *ARSIS*.<sup>1</sup>

a. The stress of voice laid upon the Thesis is called the *ICTUS* (*beat*). It is marked thus: — ∪ ∪.

b. The ending of a word within a measure is called *CÆSURA*. When this coincides with a rhetorical pause, it is called *the Cæsura* of the verse, and is of main importance as affecting the melody or rhythm.

c. The coincidence of the end of a word with that of a measure in Prosody is called *DIÆRESIS*.

<sup>1</sup> The Thesis signifies properly, the *putting down* of the foot in beating time, in the march or dance ("downward beat"), and the Arsis the *raising* of the foot ("upward beat"). By the Latin grammarians these terms were made to mean, respectively, the ending and beginning of a measure. By a misunderstanding which has prevailed till recently, since the time of Bentley, their true signification has been reversed. They will here be used in accordance with their ancient meaning, as is now becoming more common. This metrical accent, recurring at regular intervals of time, is what constitutes the essence of the rhythm of poetry as distinguished from prose, and should be constantly kept in mind.

The prevailing error arose from applying to trochaic and dactylic verse a definition which was true only of iambic or anapæstic.



Chapter III. — *Versification.*

## The Verse.

359. A single line in poetry — that is, a series of measures set in a recognized order — is called a VERSE.<sup>1</sup>

NOTE. — Most of the common verses, however, originally consisted of two series, but the joint between them is often obscured. It is marked in Iambic verse by the *Diaeresis*, in dactylic Hexameter by the *Cesura*.

a. A verse lacking a syllable at the end is called CATALECTIC, that is, there is a pause to fill the measure; if complete it is called ACATALECTIC, and needs no pause.

b. To divide the verse into its appropriate measures, according to the rules of Quantity and Versification, is called Scanning or Scansion (i. e. a *climbing* or advance by steps).

REMARK. — In reading verse rhythmically care should be taken, while preserving the measure or time of the syllables, not to destroy or confuse the words themselves, as is often done in scanning. Elided syllables should be sounded but lightly; and if it is remembered that final *m* had a nasal and feeble sound, its partial suppression before an initial vowel (see *d*) will be easy.

c. In scanning, a vowel or diphthong at the end of a word (unless an interjection) is partially suppressed when the next word begins with a vowel or with *h*. This is called ELISION (*bruising*).<sup>2</sup>

REMARK. — Elision is sometimes called by the Greek name *Synalœpha* (*smearing*). Rarely a syllable is elided at the end of a verse when the next begins with a vowel: this is called *Synapheia* (*binding*).

d. A final *m*, with the preceding vowel, is suppressed in like manner:<sup>3</sup> this is called ECTHLIPSIS (*squeezing out*): as,  
monstrum horrendum, informe, ingens, cui lumen ademptum. —  
*Æn.* iii. 658.

<sup>1</sup> The word Verse (*versus*) signifies a *turning back*, i. e. to recommence in like manner, as opposed to Prose (*prorsus* or *proversus*), which means *straight ahead*.

<sup>2</sup> The practice of Elision is followed in Italian and French poetry, and is sometimes adopted in English, particularly in the older poets: as,

To inveigle and invite the unwary sense. — *Comus*, 538.

In early Latin poetry a final syllable ending in *s* often loses this letter even before a consonant (compare 13, *δ*): as,

senio confectus quiescit. — *Ennius* (C. M. 5).

<sup>3</sup> Hence a final syllable in *m* is said to have no quantity of its own — its vowel, in any case, being either elided or else made long by Position.

REMARK. — The monosyllables *do, dem, spe, spem, sim, sto, stem, qui* (plural) are never elided; nor is an iambic word elided in dactylic verse. Elision is often evaded by skilful collocation of words.

e. Elision is sometimes omitted when a word ending in a vowel has a special emphasis, or is succeeded by a pause. This is called *HIATUS* (*gaping*.) The final vowel is sometimes shortened.

f. A final syllable, regularly short, is sometimes lengthened before a pause:<sup>1</sup> it is then said to be long by *Diastole*: as,

*nostrorum* obruimur, — oriturque miserrima caedes.

g. The last syllable of any verse may be indifferently long or short (*syllaba anceps*).

#### Forms of Verse.

360. A verse receives its name from its dominant or fundamental measure: as, *Dactylic, Iambic, Trochaic, Anapæstic*; and from the number of measures (single or double) which it contains: as, *Hexameter, Tetrameter, Trimeter, Dimeter*.

REMARK. — Trochaic, Iambic, and Anapæstic verses are measured not by single feet, but by pairs (*dipodia*), so that six Iambi make a *Trimeter*.

361. A Stanza or Strophe, consists of a definite number of verses ranged in a fixed order. It is often called from the name of some eminent poet: as, *Sapphic, Alcaic, Archilochian, Horatian*.

#### 1. — Dactylic Hexameter.

362. The Dactylic Hexameter (*Heroic Verse*) consists regularly of six dactyls. It may be represented thus: —

⏟ ⏟ ⏟ | ⏟ ⏟ ⏟ | ⏟ || ⏟ ⏟ ⏟ | ⏟ ⏟ ⏟ | ⏟ ⏟ ⏟ | ⏟ x

or in musical notation as follows: —

♩ ♩ ♩ | ♩ ♩ ♩ | ♩ || ♩ ♩ ♩ | ♩ ♩ ♩ | ♩ ♩ ♩ | ♩ ♩ ♩ |

a. For either of the feet, except the fifth, a spondee may be substituted, and must be for the last. Rarely a spondee is found in the fifth place, when the verse is called *spondaic*.

<sup>1</sup> This usage is comparatively rare, most cases where it appears being caused by the retention of an originally long quantity.

b. The verse must have one principal cæsura — sometimes two — almost always accompanied by a pause in the sense. Usually the principal cæsura is *after the thesis* (less commonly in the arsis) *of the third foot*, dividing the verse into two parts in sense and rhythm. It may also be after the thesis (less commonly in the arsis) of the fourth foot. In this case there is often another in the second, thus dividing the line into three parts: as,

partē fē|rox || ar|densque ōcū|lis || ēt | sībīlā | colla.

Æn. v. 277.

REMARK. — Often the only indication of the *principal* among a number of cæsuras is the break in the sense. A cæsura occurring after the first syllable of a foot is called *masculine*. A cæsura occurring after the second syllable of a foot (as in the fifth foot of the 3d and 4th verses in c) is called *feminine*. A cæsura may also be found in any foot of the verse except the first. When the fourth foot ends a word, the break (properly a diæresis) is sometimes improperly called *bucolic cæsura*, from its frequency in pastoral poetry.

c. The introductory verses of the *Æneid*, divided according to the foregoing rules, will be as follows, the principal. Cæsura in each verse being marked by double lines: —

Armā vī|rūmqūē cā|nō || Trō|jæ quī | primūs āb | ōris  
Itāl|ām fā|tō prōfū|gūs || Lā|vinīāquē | vēnt  
litōrā, | mūltum ille | ēt tēr|rīs || jāc|tātūs ēt | āltō  
vī sūpē|rūm sae|væ || mēmō|rēm Jū|nōnīs ōb | iram;  
mūltā quō|que ēt bē|lō pās|sūs || dūm | cōndērēt | ūrbem,  
infēr|rētquē dē|ōs Lātī|ō, || gēnūs | ūndē Lā|tīnum,  
Albā|nīquē pā|trēs, || āt|que āltæ | moenīā | Rōmæ.

The feminine cæsura is seen in the following: —

Dīs gēnī|tī pōtū|ērē: || tē|nēt mēdī|a ōmnīā | sīlvæ.

Æn. vi. 131.

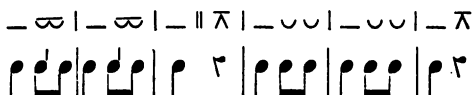
NOTE. — The Hexameter is thus illustrated in English verse: —

“Over the sea, past Crete, on the Syrian shore to the southward,  
Dwells in the well-tilled lowland a dark-haired Æthiop people,  
Skilful with needle and loom, and the arts of the dyer and carver,  
Skilful, but feeble of heart; for they know not the lords of Olympus,  
Lovers of men; neither broad-browed Zeus, nor Pallas Athené,  
Teacher of wisdom to heroes, bestower of might in the battle;  
Share not the cunning of Hermes, nor list to the songs of Apollo,  
Fearing the stars of the sky, and the roll of the blue salt water.”

*Kingsley's Andromeda.*

## 2. — Elegiac Stanza.

363. The Elegiac Stanza is constructed by alternating the hexameter verse with the so-called Pentameter,<sup>1</sup> which is the same with it, only omitting the last half of the fourth and sixth feet: as,



a. The Pentameter verse is thus to be scanned as *two half-verses*, of which the latter always consists of two dactyls followed by a single syllable.

b. The Pentameter has no regular Cæsura; but the first half-verse must always end with a word, which is followed by a pause to complete the measure.<sup>2</sup>

c. The following verses will illustrate the forms of the Elegiac Stanza: —

cūm sūbīt | illī|ūs trīs|tissīmā | nōctīs ī|māgo  
 quā mīhī sūprē|mūm | ∞ || tēmpūs īn | ūrbē fū|it,  
 cūm rēpē|tō nōc|tēm quā | tōt mīhī | cārā rē|līqui,  
 lābītūr | ēx ōcū|līs ∞ || nūnc quōquē | gūtā mē|is.  
 jān prōpē | lūx ādē|rāt quā | mē dis|cēdērē Caesar  
 finībūs | ēxtrē|mae ∞ || jūssērāt | Ausōnī|ae.

OVID. *Trist.* i. 3.

NOTE. — The Elegiac Stanza differs widely in character from hexameter verse (of which it is a mere modification) by its division into Distichs, each of which must have its own sense complete. It is employed in a great variety of compositions, — epistolary, amatory, or mournful, — and was especially a favorite of the poet Ovid. It has been illustrated in English verse, imitated from the German: —

“In the Hex|ameter | rises the | fountain’s | silvery | column;  
 In the Pen|tameter | aye || falling in | melody | back.”

<sup>1</sup> Called pentameter by the old grammarians, who divided it, formally, into five feet (two dactyls or spondees, a spondee, and two anapæsts), as follows: —

|| — ∞ ∞ | — ∞ ∞ | — || — | ∞ ∞ — | ∞ ∞ — ||

<sup>2</sup> The time of this pause, however, may be filled by the *protraction* of the preceding syllable, thus: —

— ∞ ∞ | — ∞ ∞ | — || — ∞ ∞ | — ∞ ∞ | — ∞

## 3. — Other Dactylic Verses.

**364.** Rarely other dactylic verses or half-verses are used by the lyric poets. Thus : —

a. The Dactylic Tetrameter alternates with the hexameter, forming the *Alcmanian Strophe*, as follows : —

O fōr|tēs pē|jōrāquē | pāssi,  
mēcūm | sǣpē vī|rī || nūnc | vīnō | pellītē | cūras ;  
crās in|gēns itē|rābīmūs | æquor.

HOR. — *Od.* i. 7 (so 28 ; *Ep.* 12)

NOTE. — This is a single measure, its time being represented by  $\frac{1}{4}$ .

b. The Dactylic Penthemim (five half-feet) consists of half a pentameter verse. It is used in combination with the Hexameter, forming the *First Archilochian Strophe* : as,

diffū|gērē nī|vēs || rēdē|ūnt jān | grāmīnā | cāmpis,  
ārbōrī|būsquē cō|mae ;  
mūtāt | tērrā vī|cēs || ēt | dēcērēs|cēntiā | rīpas  
flumīnā | praetērē|unt.

HOR. — *Od.* iv. 7.

[For the Fourth Archilochian Strophe (Archilochian Heptameter, alternating with iambic trimeter catalectic), see 372. II.]

## 4. — Iambic Trimeter.

**365.** The Iambic Trimeter is the ordinary verse of dramatic dialogue. It consists of three measures, each containing a double iambus (*iambic dipody*) : as,

υ — υ — | υ — υ — | υ — υ —

It is seen in the following : —

jām jam ēffīcā|cī dō mānūs | scīēntīae  
sūplēx ēt ō|rō rēgnā pēr | Prōsērpīnae,  
pēr ēt Dīā|nae nōn mōvēn|dā nūmīna,  
pēr ātquē li|brōs cārminūm | valētūm  
dē|fixā cae|lō dēvōcā|rē sīdēra,  
Cānidīā pār|cē vōcībūs | tāndēm sācrīs,  
cītūmquē rē|trō rētrō sōl|vē tūrbīnem.

HOR. *Epod.* 17.

It is represented in English by the *Alexandrine* : as,  
“Hyperion’s march they spy, and glittering shafts of war.” — *Gray*.

a. The Iambic Trimeter is often used in lyric poetry, alternating with the Dimeter, making the *Iambic Strophe*, as follows : —

bēātūs il|lē quī prōcūl | nēgōtīs,  
 ūt priscā gēns | mōrtālūm,  
 pātērnā rū|rā būbūs ēx|ercēt sūis,  
 sōlūtūs ōm|nī fēnōrē ;  
 nēque ēxcītā|tūr clāssicō | mīlēs trūci,  
 nēque hōrrēt ī|rātūm mārē ;  
 fōrūmqē vī|tāt, ēt sūpēr|bā cīvūm  
 pōtēntiō|rūm limīnā.

HOR. *Epod.* 2.

b. In the Iambic Trimeter an irrational spondee or its equivalent (anapæst or dactyl) may be regularly substituted for the first iambus of either pair ; also a Tribrach ( ∪ ∪ ∪ ) anywhere except in the last place. In the comic poets these substitutions may be made in any foot except the last : as,

O lūcis āl|mē réctōr || ēt | cāelī dēcūs !  
 quī āltērnā cūr|rū spātīā || flām|mīfēro āmbiens,  
 illūstrē lāē|tis || ēxsēris | tērris cāpūt.

SENECA. *Herc. Fur.* 592 - 94.

quid quærīs ? ān|nōs sēxāgīn|tā nātūs es  
 aut plūs ut cōn|ficio ; āgrum īn hīs | rēgionibus.

TERENCE. — *Heaut.* 10, 11.

hōmō *sum* : hūmā|nī || nzhī ā me āl|lēnūm pūtō.  
 vēl mé mōnē|re hōc || vēl pērcōn|tārī pūta.

id. *Heaut.* 77, 78.

c. The CHOLIAMBIC (*lame Iambic*) substitutes a trochee for the last iambus : as,

|| ∪ — ∪ — | ∪ — ∪ — | ∪ — ∪ — | — ^ ||  
 aequē ést bēā|tus ác pōē|mā cūm scrībit :  
 tām gaúdēt īn | sē, tūmqē se īp|sē mīrātur.

CATULL. xxii. 15, 16.

d. The Iambic Trimeter Catalectic is represented as follows : —

|| ∪ — ∪ — | ∪ — ∪ — | ∪ — ∪ ||

It is used in combination with other measures (see 372, 11), and is shown in the following : —

Vulcānūs ār|dēns ūrīt ōs|fīcinās.

HOR. — *Od.* i. 4.

or in English : —

“ On purple peaks a deeper shade descending.” — *Scott*.



## 6. — Trochaic Verse.

367. The most common form of Trochaic verse is the Tetrameter catalectic (*Septenarius*), consisting of four dipodies lacking a syllable. It is represented metrically thus :—

|| ˘ ˘ — > | ˘ ˘ — > || ˘ ˘ — > | ˘ ˘ — ˘ ||

or in musical notation,

$\frac{6}{8}$  ♪ ♪ ♪ ♪ | ♪ ♪ ♪ ♪ | ♪ ♪ ♪ ♪ | ♪ ♪ ♪ ♪ |

ád te advenio, spém, salutem, cónsilium aúxiliúm expetens.

TER. *Andr.* ii. 18.

In English verse :—

“Tell me not in mournful numbers life is but an empty dream.”

*Longfellow.*

a. Strictly the spondee and its resolutions can be substituted only in the even places ; but the comic poets allow the substitution in every foot but the last : as,

ítidem habet peta|sum ác vestitum : | tám consimilist | átque ego.  
súra, pes, sta|túra, tonsus, | óculi, nasum, | vél labra,  
málae, mentum, | bárba, collus ; | tótus ! quid ver|bís opust ?  
sí tergum ci|cátricosum, | nñhl hoc similist | símilis.

PLAUT. *Amphitr.* 443—446.

b. Some other forms of trochaic verse are found in the lyric poets, in combination with other feet, either as whole lines or parts of lines : as,

nón ebur ne|que aúreum [*dim. catal.*]  
meá reni|det ín domo la|cúnar [*Iamb. trim. catal.*].

HOR.—*Od.* ii. 18.

## 7. — Mixed Measures.

NOTE.—Different measures are combined in the same verse in two different ways. Either a series of one kind was simply joined to a series of another kind—analogueous to the changes of rhythm not uncommon in modern music ; or single feet of other times were combined with the prevailing measures, in which case these odd feet were adapted by a change in their quantity, becoming *irrational* (see 356, Note). When measures of one kind occur, enough to form a series, we may suppose a change of rhythm ; where they are isolated we must suppose adaptation. Of the indefinite number of possible combinations but few are found in Latin poetry.



**368.** The following Verses, composed of different rhythmical series, are found in Latin lyrical poetry:—

1. GREATER ARCHILOCHIAN (Dactylic Tetrameter; Trochaic Tripody):—

|| — ∞ | — ∞ | — ∞ | — ∞ || — ∪ | — ∪ | — > ||  
 solvītūr | ācrīs hī|ēms grā|tā vīcē || vēris | et Fa|vōni.

HOR.—*Od.* i. 4.

It is possible that the dactyls may have been cyclic; but the change of measure seems more probable.

2. Verse consisting of Dactylic Tetrameter catalectic (*Dactylic Penthemim*); Iambic Dimeter:—

|| — ∪ ∪ | — ∪ ∪ | — || ∩ — ∪ — | ∩ — ∪ — ||  
 scrībērē | versīcū|los || āmōrē pēr|cūlsum jūvat.

id. *Ep.* 11.

#### 8.—Logædic Verse.

**369.** Trochaic verses containing irrational measures or feet in regular prescribed positions are called LOGAÆDIC. The principal logaædic forms are:—

1. Logaædic Tetrapody (*four feet*): GLYCONIC.
2. Logaædic Tripody (*three feet*): PHERECRATIC.
3. Logaædic Dipody (*two feet*): this may be considered a *short Pherecratic*.

NOTE.—Irrational measures are those in which the syllables do not correspond strictly to the normal ratio of length (see 355), such as the *Irrational Spondee* and the *Cyclic Dactyl*. This mixture of various ratios of length gives an effect approaching that of prose: hence the name Logaædic (λογος, δοιδή). These measures originated in the Greek lyric poetry, and were adopted by the Romans. All the Roman lyric metres not belonging to the regular iambic, trochaic, dactylic, or Ionic systems, were constructed on the basis of the three forms given above: viz., Logaædic systems consisting respectively of four, three, or two feet. Those of five feet (*Pentapody*) are to be regarded as composed of two of the others.

**370.** Each logaædic form contains a single dactyl,<sup>1</sup> which may be either in the first, second, or third place. The verse may be catalectic or acatalectic: viz.,

<sup>1</sup> Different Greek poets adopted fixed types in regard to the place of the dactyls, and so a large number of verses arose, each following a strict law, which were imitated by the Romans as existing metres.

**Glyconic.**

*Pherecratic.*

- i.  $\sim \vee \mid \_ \vee \mid \_ \vee \mid \_ (\vee) \parallel \sim \vee \mid \_ \vee \mid \_ (\vee) \parallel$   
 ii.  $\_ \vee \mid \sim \vee \mid \_ \vee \mid \_ (\vee) \parallel \_ \vee \mid \sim \vee \mid \_ (\vee) \parallel$   
 iii.  $\_ \vee \mid \_ \vee \mid \sim \vee \mid \_ (\vee) \parallel \sim \vee \mid \_ (\vee) \parallel$

**NOTE.**—The shorter Pherecratic (*dipody*), if catalectic, appears a simple Choriambus (— ∪ ∪ | — ^) ; and, in general, the effect of the logaedic forms is Choriambic. In fact, they were so regarded by the later Greek and Latin metricians, and these metres have obtained the general name of CHORIAMBIC. But they are not true choriambic, though they may very likely have been felt to be such by the composer, who imitated the forms without much thought of their origin. They may be read (scanned), therefore, on that principle. But it is better to read them as *logaedic* measures ; and that course is followed here in accordance with the most approved opinion on the subject.

**371.** The verses constructed upon the several Logaedic forms or models are the following:—

**I. GLYCONIC (*Second Glyconic*, catalectic) : —**

|| — ♪ — ♪ — ♪ — || ♪ ♪ | ♪ · ♪ ♪ | ♪ ♪ | ♪ · (or ♪ 7) |  
 Romae | principis | urbi|um ||

**In English : —**

**"Forms more real than living man." — Shelley.**

**NOTE.**—In this and most of the succeeding forms the first foot is always irrational in Horace, consisting of an apparent spondee (— >).

## 2. ARISTOPHANIC (*First Pherecratic*) : —

temperat | ora | frenis. — *Hor.*

**NOTE.**—It is very likely that this was made equal in time to the preceding by protracting the last two syllables : thus,

|| ~v | -v | L | - | || ♯♭♭♭ | ♯♭ | ♯♭ | ♯♭♭♭ | ♯♭

**3. ADONIC (*First Pherecratic*, shortened) : —**

|| ~ ~ | ~ ~ || ♯. ♯ ♯ | ♯ ♯ |

**Terruit** | urbem. — *Hor.*

**Or perhaps : —**

||-v v|L|-A|| **f**·**f****f**|**f**·|**f**<sup>7</sup>|

4. PHERECRATIC (*Second Pherecratic*): —

|| — > | ~ u | L | x ^ || p p | p . p p | p . | p 7 |

crás donáberis haédo. — *Hor.*

5. LESSER ASCLEPIADIC (*Second and First Pherecratic*, both catalectic): —

|| — > | ~ u | L || ~ u | — u | x ^ ||

Maécenás atavís édite régibús. — *Hor.*

6. GREATER ASCLEPIADIC (the same, interposing a *Logædic Dipody*): —

|| — > | ~ u | L || ~ u | L || ~ u | — u | — ^ ||

tú ne quaésierís — scire nefás — quém mihi quém tibí. — *Hor.*

7. LESSER SAPPHIC (*Logædic Pentapody*, with dactyl in the third place): —

|| — u | — > | ~ u | — u | L | u ^ ||

Íntégér vitaé scelerísque púrus. — *Hor.*

Or in English: —

“Brilliant hopes, all woven in gorgeous tissues.” — *Longfellow.*

8. GREATER SAPPHIC (*Third Glyconic*; *First Pherecratic*): —

|| — u | — > | ~ u | L || ~ u | — u | L | u ^ ||

té deós oró Sybarín || cúr properás amándo. — *Hor.*

9. LESSER ALCAIC (*Logædic Tetrapody*, two dactyls, two trochees): —

|| ~ u | ~ u | — u | — u ||

víginibús puerísque cánto. — *Hor.*

In English (nearly): —

“Blossom by blossom the Spring begins.” — *Atalanta in Calydon.*

10. GREATER ALCAIC (*Logædic Pentapody*, catalectic, with Anacrusis, and dactyl in the third place, — compare *Lesser Sapphic*): —

|| u : — u | — > | ~ u | — u | u ^ ||

justum ét tenácem própositú virúm. — *Hor.*

Or, in English: —

“Of calling shapes, and beckoning shadows dire.” — *Comus*, 207.

NOTE. — Only the above *Logædic* forms are employed by Horace.

11. PHALÆCIAN (*Logædic Pentapody*, with dactyl in the second place): —

|| x > | ~ u | — u | — u | L | — ^ ||

quænam té mala méns, misélli Ráuidí,  
ágit præcipitem ín meós iámbós? — *Catull.* xl.

In English: —

"Gorgeous flowerets in the sunlight shining." — *Longfellow.*

12. GLYCONIC PHERECRATIC (*Metrum Satyricum*): —

|| \_ ∪ | ~ ∪ | \_ ∪ | L || \_ ∪ | ~ ∪ | L | \_ ^ ||

O Colónia quæe cupís || pónte lúdere lóngo. — *Catull.* xvii.

### Metres of Horace.

372. The Odes of Horace include nineteen varieties of stanza: viz.,

1. ALCAIC, consisting of two Greater Alcaics (10), one Trochaic Dimeter with anacrusis, and one Lesser Alcaic (9)<sup>1</sup>: as,

justum ét tenácem próposití yirúm  
non cívium árdor práva jubéntiúm  
non vúltus íntantís tyránni  
ménte quatít solidá neque Aúster. — *Od.* iii. 3.

NOTE. — The Alcaic Strophe was a special favorite with Horace, of whose Odes thirty-seven are in this form.<sup>2</sup> It is sometimes called the *Horatian Stanza*. The verses were formerly described as, 1, 2, spondee, bacchius, two dactyls; 3. spondee, bacchius, two trochees; 4. two dactyls, two trochees.

2. SAPPHIC (*minor*), consisting of three Lesser Sapphics (7) and one Adonic (3): as,

jám satís terrís nivis átque dírae  
grándinís misít pater ét rubénte  
déterá sacrás jaculátus árces  
térruit úrbem. — *Od.* i. 2.

NOTE. — The Sapphic Stanza is named after the poetess Sappho of Lesbos, and was a great favorite with the ancients, being used by Horace in twenty-five Odes — more frequently than any other except the foregoing. The *Lesser Sapphic* verse was formerly described as consisting of a Choriambus preceded by a trochaic dipody and followed by a bacchius.

<sup>1</sup> The figures refer to the foregoing list (371).

<sup>2</sup> See the List below (pp. 289-291).

3. SAPPHIC (*major*), consisting of one Aristophanic (2) and one Greater Sapphic (8): as,

Lydia díc, per ómnes  
té deós oró, Sybarín cúr properás amándo. — *Od.* i. 8.

4. ASCLEPIADEAN I. (*minor*), consisting of Lesser Asclepiadics (5): as,

éxegí monuméntum aére perénniús  
régálque sitú — píramidum áltiús. — *Od.* iii. 20.

5. ASCLEPIADEAN II., consisting of one Glyconic (1) and one Lesser Asclepiadic (5): as,

Návis quæ tibi créditúm  
débes Vírgiliúm, — sínibus Atticís  
réddas incolumém, precór,  
ét servés animaé — dímidium meaé. — *Od.* i. 3.

6. ASCLEPIADEAN III., consisting of three Lesser Asclepiadics (5) and one Glyconic (1): as,

Quís desíderió sít pudor áut modús  
tám carí capítis? — præcipe lúgubrés  
cántus, Mélpomené, — cuí liquidám patér  
vócem cúm cythará dedít. — *Od.* i. 24.

7. ASCLEPIADEAN IV., consisting of two Lesser Asclepiadics (5), one Pherecratic (4), and one Glyconic (1): as,

O fons Bándusiaé spléndidiór vitró,  
dúlci dígne meró, nón sine flóribús,  
crás donáberis haédo  
cuí frons túrgida córnibús. — *Od.* iii. 13.

8. ASCLEPIADEAN V. (*major*), consisting of Greater Asclepiadics (6): as,

tú ne quaésierís — scíre nefás! — quém mihi, quém tibi  
finem dí dederínt — Leúconoé — néc Babylóniós  
téntarís numerós. — *Od.* i. 11.

9. ALCMANIAN, consisting of Dactylic Hexameter (362) alternating with Tetrameter (364. *a*).

10. ARCHILOCHIAN I., consisting of Dactylic Hexameter alternating with Trimeter Catalectic (*Dactylic Penthemim*, see 364. *b*).

11. ARCHILOCHIAN IV., consisting of a Greater Archilochian (*heptameter*, 368. 1), followed by Iambic Trimeter catalectic (365. d). The stanza consists of two pairs of verses: as,

sólvitur ácris hiéms gratá vice || Véris ét Favóni,  
trahúntque siccas máchinae carínas ;  
ác neque jám stabulís gaudét pecus, || áut arátor igni,  
nec práta canis álbicant pruínis. — *Od.* i. 4.

12. Iambic Trimeter alone (see 365).

13. Iambic Strophe (see 365. a).

14. Dactylic Hexameter alternating with Iambic Dimeter: as,

nóx erat, ét caeló fulgébat lúna seréno  
intér minora sídera,  
cúm tu, mágnorúm numén laesúra deórum,  
in vérba jurabás mea. — *Epod.* 15.

15. Dactylic Hexameter with Iambic Trimeter (365); as,

áltera jám teritur bellís civilibus aétas,  
suís et ipsa Róma viribús ruit. — *Epod.* 16.

16. Verse of Four Lesser Ionics: as,

miserárum ést | neque amóri | dare lúdum | neque dúlcī  
mala vínō | lavere aut ēx|animāri | metuēntēs. — *Od.* iii. 12.

17. Iamb. trim. (365); Dact. penthem. (364. b); Iamb. dim.: as,

Pectī nihil me sícut antea júvat  
scríbere vérsículos — amóre percúsum gravi. — *Epod.* 11.

18. Dactylic Hexameter; Iambic Dimeter; Dactylic Penthemim (364. b): as,

hórrida témpetás caelúm contráxit, et ímbres  
nívésque deducúnt Jovem: núnc mare, núnc silíuae. . . .

*Epod.* 13.

19. Trochaic Dimeter, Iambic Trimeter, each catalectic (see 367. b).

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29. Icci beatis : 1.
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9. Non semper imbres : 1.
10. Rectius vives : 2.

11. Quid bellicosus : 1.
12. Nolis longa : 6.
13. Ille et nefasto : 1.
14. Eheu fugaces : 1.
15. Jam pauca : 1.
16. Otium divos : 1.
17. Cur me querelis : 1.
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15. Uxor pauperis : 5.

16. Inclusam Danaën : 6.
17. Aeli vetusto : 1.
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19. Quantum distet : 5.
20. Non vides : 2.
21. O nata mecum : 1.
22. Montium custos : 2.
23. Caelo supinas : 1.
24. Intactis opulentior : 5.
25. Quo me Bacche : 5.
26. Vixi puellis : 1.
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9. Ne forte credas : 1.
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- |                           |                             |
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| 2. Beatus ille : 13.      | 11. Pecti nihil : 17.       |
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| 4. Lupis et agnis : 13.   | 13. Horrida tempestas : 18. |
| 5. At O deorum : 13.      | 14. Mollis inertia : 14.    |
| 6. Quid immerentes : 13.  | 15. Nox erat : 14.          |
| 7. Quo quo scelesti : 13. | 16. Altera jam : 15.        |
| 8. Rogare longo : 13.     | 17. Jam jam efficaci : 12.  |
| 9. Quando repostum : 13.  |                             |

373. Other lyric poets use other combinations of the above-mentioned verses.

a. *Glyconics* with one *Pherecratic* (both imperfect): as,

Dīā|nae sūmūs | in fidē  
 puell|ae ēt pūēri | intēgrī :  
 Dīā|nām, pūēri | intēgrī  
 pūēl|laequē cā|nā|mus. — CATULL. 34.

b. *Sapphics*, in series of single lines, closing with an *Adonic*:  
 as,

An mā|gīs dī|rī trēmū|ēre | Mānes  
 Hercū|lem ? ēt vī|sum cānis | infē|rōrum  
 fugīt | abrup|tis trēpī|dūs cā|tēnis ?  
 fallī|mur : lae|tē vēnīt | ēccē | vultu,  
 quem tū|lit Poelās ; hūmē|rīsquē | tēla  
 gēstāt | ēt nō|tās pōpū|lis phā|rētras  
 Herculis | heres. — SEN. *Herc. Œt.* 1600-6.

c. *Sapphics* followed by *Glyconics*, of indefinite number (id. *Herc. Fur.* 830-874, 875-894).

## Miscellaneous.

374. Other measures occur in various styles of poetry :  
 viz : —

a. ANAPÆSTIC verses of various lengths are found in dramatic poetry. The spondee, dactyl, or proceleusmatic may be substituted for the anapæst : as,

hīc hōmōst | ōmnīum hōmī|nūm prae|cipūōs  
 vōlūptā|tībūs gaū|dīsque ān|tēpōtēns.  
 Itā cōm|mōdā quae | cūpō ēvēnīunt,  
 quōd āgō | sūbīt, ād|sēcūē | sēquītūr :  
 Itā gaū|dīum sūp|pēdītāt. — PLAUT. *Trin.* 1115-19.



*b.* BACCHIAC verses (five-timed) occur in dramatic poets, — very rarely in Terence, more commonly in Plautus — either in verses of two feet (Dimeter) or of four (Tetrameter). They are treated very freely, as are all measures in early Latin. The long syllables may be resolved, or the molossus (three longs) substituted : as,

mūltās rēs | sīmitur in | mēō cōr|dē vōrsō,  
mūltum in cō|gītāndō | dōlōrem in|dīpīscor  
ēgōmēt mē | cōgo ēt mā|cēro ēt dē|fātīgō ;  
māgīstēr | mīhī ēxēr|cītōr ānī|mūs nūnc est.

PLAUT. *Trin.* 223–226.

*c.* CRETIC measures occur in the same manner as the Bacchiac, with the same substitutions. The last foot is usually incomplete : as,

āmōr āmī|cūs mīhī | nē fūās | ūnquam.

hīs ēgō | dē ārtībūs | grātīām | fācīo.

nīl ēgo is|tōs mōrōr | faecēōs | mōres. — *id.* 267, 293, 297.

*d.* SATURNIAN VERSE. — In early Latin is found a rude form of verse, not like the others borrowed from the Greek. The rhythm is Iambic tetrameter (or Trochaic with Anacrusis), from the Greek ; but the Arsis is often syncopated, especially in the middle and end of the verses : as,

da|būnt ma|lūm Me|tē|lī — || Naēvi|ó po|létae.

#### Early Prosody.

375. The prosody of the earlier Latin poets differs in several respects from that of the later.<sup>1</sup>

*a.* At the end of words *s* was only feebly sounded, so that it does not make *position* with a following consonant, and is sometimes cut off before a vowel. This usage continued in all poets till Cicero's time.

*b.* The last syllable of any word of two syllables may be made short, if the first is short. (This effect remained in a few words like *putā, cavē, valē, vidē.*) Thus —

ābēst (*Cist.* ii. 1, 12) ; āpūd tēst (*Trin.* 196) ; sōrōr dictāst (*Enn.* 157) ; bōnās (*Stich.* 99) ; dōmī dēaque (*Pseud.* 37) ; dōmī (*Mil.* 194).

<sup>1</sup> Before the language was used in literature, it had become very much changed by the loss of final consonants and shortening of final syllables under the influence of accent ; which was originally free in its position, but in Latin became limited to the penult and antepenult. This tendency was arrested by the study of grammar and by literature, but shows itself again in the Romance languages. In many cases this change was still in progress in the time of the early poets.

c. The same effect is produced when a short monosyllable precedes a long syllable : as,

Id est profecto (*Merc.* 372) ; ert et tibi exoptatum (*Mil.* 1011) ;  
si quidem hercle (*Asin.* 414) ; quid est si hoc (*Andria*, 237).

d. In a few isolated words position is often disregarded. Such are *ille*, *iste*, *inde*, *unde*, *nempe*, *esse* (?). (Scholars are not yet agreed upon the principle in this irregularity, or its extent.) Thus : — ecquís his in aedibust (*Bacch.* 581.)

e. In some cases the accent seems to shorten a syllable preceding it in a word of more than three syllables : as, in *senectuti*, *Syracusae*.

f. At the beginning of a verse, many syllables long by position stand for short ones : as,

Idnē tu (*Pseud.* 442) ; estne consimilis (*Epid.* v. l. 18).

g. The original long quantity of many final syllables is retained. Thus : —

1. Final a of the first declension is often long : as,

ne epistulā quidem ūlla sit in aedibus (*Asin.* 762).

2. Final a of the neuter plural is sometimes long (though there seems no etymological reason for it) : as,

nūnc et amico | prōsperabo et | génio meō mul | tā bona faciam  
(*Pers.* 263).

3. The ending -or is retained long in nouns with long stem (either with original r or original s) : as,

módo quom dicta in me ingerebas ódium non uxōr eram (*As.* 927.)  
íta mī in pectore átque corde, fácit amōr incéndium (*Merc.* 500).  
átque quanto nōx fuisti lóngiōr hoc próxuma (*Amph.* 548).

4. The termination es (*Itis*) is sometimes retained long : as in *milēs*, *superstēs*.

5. All verb-endings in r, s, and t, may be retained long, where the vowel is elsewhere long in inflection : as,

régrediōr audísse me (*Capt.* 1023) ; átque ut qui fuerís et qui nunc  
(id. 248) ; me nómīnāt haec (*Epid.* iv. 1, 8) ; faciāt ut semper (*Poen.*  
ii. 42) ; infuscabāt, amabo (*Cretics*, *Cist.* i. 21) ; qui amēt (*Merc.*  
1021) ; ut fit in bello capitur alter filius (*Capt.* 25) ; tibi sīt ad me  
revisas (*Truc.* ii. 4, 79).

h. The *hiatus* is allowed very freely, especially at a pause in the sense, or when there is a change of the speaker. (The extent of this license is still a question among scholars ; but in the present state of texts it must sometimes be allowed.)

## MISCELLANEOUS.

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### 1.—Reckoning of Time.

NOTE.—The Year was dated, in earlier times, by the names of the Consuls; but was afterwards reckoned from the building of the City (*ab urbe conditâ, anno urbis conditæ*), the date of which was assigned by Varro to a period corresponding with B.C. 753. In order, therefore, to reduce Roman dates to those of the Christian era, *the year of the city is to be subtracted from 754*: e.g. A.U.C. 691 (the year of Cicero's consulship) = B.C. 63.

Before Cæsar's reform of the Calendar (B.C. 46), the Roman year consisted of 355 days: March, May, Quintilis (July), and October having each 31 days; February having 28, and each of the remainder 29; with an Intercalary month, on alternate years, inserted after February 23, at the discretion of the Pontifices. The "Julian year," by the reformed calendar, had 365 days, divided as at present. Every fourth year the 24th of February (vi. kal. Mart.) was counted twice, giving 29 days to that month: hence the year was called *Bissextilis*. The month Quintilis received the name *Julius* (July), in honor of Julius Cæsar; and Sextilis of *Augustus* (August), in honor of his successor. The Julian year (see below) remained unchanged till the adoption of the Gregorian Calendar (A.D. 1582), which omits leap-year once in every century.

**376.** Dates, according to the Roman Calendar, are reckoned as follows:—

a. The *first* day of the month was called **Kalendæ** (*Calends*), from **calare**, *to call*,—that being the day on which the pontiffs publicly announced the New Moon in the *Comitia Calata*, which which they did, originally, from actual observation.

b. Sixteen days before the Calends,—that is, on the *fifteenth* day of March, May, July, and October, but the *thirteenth* of the other months,—were the **Idus** (*Ides*), the day of Full Moon.

c. Eight days (the ninth by the Roman reckoning) before the Ides—that is, on the *seventh* day of March, May, July, and October, but the *fifth* of the other months—were the **Nonæ** (*Nones or ninths*).

d. From the three points thus determined the days of the month were reckoned *backwards* (the point of departure being, by Roman custom, counted in the reckoning), giving the following rule for determining the date : —

If the given date be Calends, add *two* to the number of days in the month preceding, — if Nones or Ides, add *one* to that of the day on which they fall, — and from the number thus ascertained subtract the given date : — thus,

viii. Kal. Feb. (33—8) = Jan. 25.

iv. Non. Mar. (8—4) = Mar. 4.

iv. Id. Sept. (14—4) = Sept. 10.

e. The days of the Roman month by the Julian Calendar, as thus ascertained, are given in the following Table : —

January.	February.	March.	April.
1. KAL. JAN.	KAL. FEB.	KAL. MARTIÆ	KAL. APRILES
2. iv. Non. Jan.	iv. Non. Feb.	vi. Non. Mart.	iv. Non. Apr.
3. iii. " "	iii. " "	v. " "	iii. " "
4. prid. " "	prid. " "	iv. " "	prid. " "
5. NON. JAN.	NON. FEB.	iii. " "	NON. APRILES
6. viii. Id. Jan.	viii. Id. Feb.	prid. " "	viii. Id. Apr.
7. vii. " "	vii. " "	NON. MARTIÆ	vii. " "
8. vi. " "	vi. " "	viii. Id. Mart.	vi. " "
9. v. " "	v. " "	vii. " "	v. " "
10. iv. " "	iv. " "	vi. " "	iv. " "
11. iii. " "	iii. " "	v. " "	iii. " "
12. prid. " "	prid. " "	iv. " "	prid. " "
13. IDUS JAN.	IDUS FEB.	iii. " "	IDUS APRILES.
14. xix. Kal. Feb.	xvi. Kal. Martias	prid. " "	xviii. Kal. Maias
15. xviii. " "	xv. " "	IDUS MARTIÆ	xvii. " "
16. xvii. " "	xiv. " "	xvii. Kal. Aprilis.	xvi. " "
17. xvi. " "	xiii. " "	xvi. " "	xv. " "
18. xv. " "	xii. " "	xv. " "	xiv. " "
19. xiv. " "	xi. " "	xiv. " "	xiii. " "
20. xiii. " "	x. " "	xiii. " "	xii. " "
21. xii. " "	ix. " "	xii. " "	xi. " "
22. xi. " "	viii. " "	xi. " "	x. " "
23. x. " "	vii. " "	x. " "	ix. " "
24. ix. " "	vi. " "	ix. " "	viii. " "
25. viii. " "	v. " "	viii. " "	vii. " "
26. vii. " "	iv. " "	vii. " "	vi. " "
27. vi. " "	iii. " "	vi. " "	v. " "
28. v. " "	prid. " "	v. " "	iv. " "
29. iv. " "	[prid. Kal. Mart.	iv. " "	iii. " "
30. iii. " "	in leap-year, the	iii. " "	prid. " "
31. prid. " "	vi. Kal. (24th) being	prid. " "	So June, Sept., Nov.
(So Aug., Dec.)	counted twice.]	(So May, July, Oct.)	

NOTE. — Observe that a date before the Julian Reform (B.C. 46) is to be found not by the above, but by taking the earlier reckoning of the number of days in the month.

## 2. Measures of Value.

**377.** The Money of the Romans was in early times wholly of copper, the unit being the *As*. This was nominally a pound, but actually somewhat less, in weight, and was divided into twelve *uncia*e. In the third century B.C. the *As* was reduced by degrees to one-twelfth of its original value. At the same time silver coins were introduced; the Denarius = 10 *Asses*, and the Sestertius or *sesterce* (*semis-tertius*, or *half-third*, represented by IIS or HS = *duo et semis*) =  $2\frac{1}{2}$  *Asses*.

**378.** The *Sestertius*, being probably introduced at a time when it was equal in value to the original *As*, came to be used as the unit of value: hence *nummus*, *coin*, was used as equivalent to *Sestertius*. Afterwards, by reductions in the standard, four *asses* became equal to a *sesterce*. Gold was introduced later, the *aureus* being equal to 100 *sesterces*. The value of these coins is seen in the following Table:—

$2\frac{1}{2}$ asses = 1 sestertius or nummus (HS), value nearly 5 cents.	
10 asses or 4 sestertii = 1 denarius . . . . .	20 "
1000 sestertii = 1 sestertium . . . . .	\$50.00.

**379.** The *Sestertium* (probably the genitive plural of *sestertius*) was a sum of money, not a coin; the word is inflected regularly as a neuter noun: thus, *tria sestertia* = \$150.00. When combined with a numeral adverb, *hundreds of thousands* (*centena millia*) are to be understood: thus *decies sestertium* (*decies HS*) = \$50,000. In the statement of large sums the noun is often omitted: thus *sexagies* (Rosc. Am. 2) signifies, *sexagies* [*centena millia*] *sestertium* (6,000,000 sesterces) = \$300,000 (nearly).

**380.** In the statement of sums of money in cipher, a line above the number indicates thousands; lines at the sides also, hundred-thousands. Thus HS. DC. = 600 *sestertii*; HS.  $\overline{\text{DC}}$ . = 600,000 *sestertii*, or 600 *sestertia*; H.S.  $\overline{\overline{\text{DC}}}$  = 60,000,000 *sestertii*.

**381.** The Roman Measures of Length are the following:—

- 12 *uncia*e (*inches*) = 1 Roman Foot (*pes*: 11.65 English inches).  
 $1\frac{1}{2}$  Feet = 1 Cubit. —  $2\frac{1}{2}$  Feet = 1 Degree or Step (*gradus*).  
 5 Feet = 1 Pace (*passus*). — 1000 Paces (*mille passuum*) = 1 Mile.

The Roman mile was equal to 4850 English feet. The *Jugerum*, or unit of measure of land, was an area of 240 (Roman) feet long and 120 broad; a little less than  $\frac{2}{3}$  of an English *acre*.

**382. The Measures of Weight are —**

12 uncia (ounces) = one pound (*libra*, about  $\frac{3}{4}$  lb. avoirdupois).

**Fractional parts (weight or coin) are —**

- |   |   |   |
|---|---|---|
| 1. ( $\frac{1}{12}$ ), <i>uncia</i> ;   | 5. ( $\frac{1}{6}$ ), <i>quincunx</i> ; | 9. ( $\frac{1}{3}$ ), <i>dodrans</i> ;  |
| 2. ( $\frac{1}{6}$ ), <i>sextans</i> ;  | 6. ( $\frac{1}{2}$ ), <i>semissis</i> ; | 10. ( $\frac{5}{6}$ ), <i>dextans</i> ; |
| 3. ( $\frac{1}{3}$ ), <i>quadrans</i> ; | 7. ( $\frac{1}{2}$ ), <i>septunx</i> ;  | 11. ( $\frac{2}{3}$ ), <i>deunx</i> ;   |
| 4. ( $\frac{1}{4}$ ), <i>triens</i> ;   | 8. ( $\frac{2}{3}$ ), <i>bessis</i> ;   | 12. <b>As</b> . <sup>1</sup>            |

The Talent was a Greek weight = 60 *librae*.

**383. The Measures of Capacity are —**

12 cyathi = 1 *sextarius* (nearly a pint).

16 sextarii = 1 *modius* (peck).

6 sextarii = 1 *congius* (3 quarts, liquid measure).

8 congii = 1 *amphora* (6 gallons).

**ABBREVIATIONS.**

A., *absolvo, antiquo*.

A. U., *anno urbis*.

A. U. C., *ab urbe condita*.

C., *condemno, comitialis*.

cos., *consul (consule)*.

coss., *consules (consulibus)*.

D., *divus*.

D. D., *dono dedit*.

D. D. D., *dat, dicat, dedicat*.

des., *designatus*.

D. M., *dii manes*.

eq. Rom., *eques Romanus*.

F., *filius, fastus*.

ictus, *jurisconsultus*.

Id., *idus*.

imp., *imperator*.

J. O. M., *Jovi optimo maximo*.

K., *Kal., Kalendæ*.

N., *nepos, nefastus*.

N. L., *non liquet*.

P. C., *patres conscripti*.

pl., *plebis*.

pont. max., *pontifex maximus*.

pop., *populus*.

P. R., *populus Romanus*.

pr., *prætor*.

proc., *proconsul*.

Q. B. F. F. Q. S., *quod bonum felix  
faustumque sit*.

Quir., *Quirites*.

resp., *respublica, respondet*.

S., *salutem, sacrum, senatus*.

S. C., *senatus consultum*.

S. D. P., *salutem dicit plurimam*.

S. P. Q. R., *Senatus Populusque Ro-  
manus*.

S. V. B. E. E. V., *si vales bene est, ego  
valeo*.

pl. tr., *tribunus plebis*.

U. (U. R.), *uti rogas*.

<sup>1</sup> Originally a pound of copper; afterwards worth about two cents.

## GLOSSARY

### OF TERMS USED IN GRAMMAR, RHETORIC, AND PROSODY.

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#### I. GRAMMATICAL FIGURES.

- Anacoluthon* : a change of construction in the same sentence, leaving the first part broken or unfinished.
- Anastrophe* : inversion of the usual order of words.
- Apodosis* : the conclusion of a conditional sentence (see *Protasis*).
- Archaism* : an adoption of old or obsolete forms.
- Asyndeton* : omission of conjunctions (208. *b*).
- Barbarism* : adoption of foreign or unauthorized forms.
- Brachylogy* : brevity of expression.
- Crasis* : contraction of two vowels into one (10. *c*).
- Ellipsis* : omission of a word or words necessary to complete the sense (177. *N*).
- Enallage* : substitution of one word or form for another.
- Epenthesis* : insertion of a letter or syllable (11. *c*).
- Hellenism* : use of Greek forms or constructions.
- Hendiadys* : the use of two nouns, with conjunction, instead of a single modified noun.
- Hypallage* : interchange of constructions.
- Hysteron proteron* : reversing the natural order.
- Metathesis* : transposition of letters in a word (11. *d*).
- Paragoge* : adding a letter or letters to the end of a word.
- Parenthesis* : insertion of a phrase interrupting the construction.
- Periphrasis* : a roundabout way of expression.
- Pleonasm* : the use of needless words.
- Prolepsis* : the use of a word by anticipation, referring to one or more words afterwards expressed.
- Protasis* : a clause introduced by a conditional expression (*if, when, whoever*), leading to a conclusion called the *Apodosis* (304).
- Syncope* : omission of a letter or syllable from the middle of a word (11. *b*).
- Synesis* : agreement of words according to the sense, and not the grammatical form (182).
- Tmesis* : the separation of the two parts of a compound word by other words (*cutting*).
- Zeugma* : the use of a verb with two different words, to only one of which it strictly applies (*yoking*).

## II. RHETORICAL FIGURES.

*Allegory* : a narrative in which names and things are used as metaphors to enforce some moral truth, and not in their natural sense.

*Alliteration* : using several words that begin with one consonant.

*Analogy* : argument from resemblances.

*Anaphora* : repeating a word at the beginning of successive clauses (344. *f*).

*Antithesis* : opposition, or contrast of parts (for emphasis : 344).

*Antonomasia* : use of a proper for a common noun, or the reverse.

*Aposiopesis* : an abrupt pause for rhetorical effect.

*Catachresis* : a harsh metaphor (misuse of words).

*Chiasmus* : reversing the order of words in corresponding pairs or phrases (344. *f*).

*Climax* : a gradual increase of emphasis, or enlargement of meaning.

*Euphemism* : the mild expression of a painful or repulsive idea.

*Euphony* : the choice of words for their agreeable sound.

*Hyperbaton* : violation of the usual order of words.

*Hyperbole* : exaggeration for rhetorical effect.

*Irony* : the use of words which naturally convey a sense contrary to what is meant.

*Litotes* : the affirming of a thing by denying its contrary (209. *c*).

*Metaphor* : the figurative use of words, indicating an object by some resemblance (*transfer*).

*Metonymy* : using the name of one thing to indicate some kindred thing.

*Paronomasia* : using words of like sound.

*Synecdoche* : using the name of a part for the whole, or the reverse.

*Oxymoron* : using contradictory words in the same phrase.

## III. TERMS OF PROSODY.

*Acatalectic* : complete, as a series or sequence of feet (359. *a*).

*Anacalasis* : breaking up of rhythm by substituting different measures.

*Anacrusis* : changing the character of the rhythm by setting off an unaccented syllable or syllables (355. *g*).

*Antistrophe* : a series of verses corresponding to one which has gone before (*strophe*).

*Arsis* : the unaccented part of a foot (358).

*Basis* : a single foot preceding the regular movement of a verse.



- Cæsura* : the ending of a word within a measure (358. *b*).  
*Catalexis* : loss of a final syllable (or syllables) making the series *catalectic* (incomplete, 359. *a*).  
*Contraction* : using one long syllable for two short (357).  
*Correption* : shortening of a long syllable, for symmetry.  
*Diæresis* : the coincidence of the end of a foot with that of a word (358. *c*).  
*Dialysis* : the use of *j* and *v* as vowels (*siluä* = *silva* : 347. *d*, *R*).  
*Diastole* : making a short syllable long by emphasizing it (359. *f*).  
*Dipody*, *Dimeter* : consisting of two like feet, or measures.  
*Distich* : a system or series of two verses.  
*Elision* : the combining of a final with a following initial vowel (359. *c*).  
*Heptameter* : consisting of seven feet.  
*Hexapody*, *Hexameter* : consisting of six feet, or measures.  
*Hiatus* : the meeting of two vowels without contraction or elision (359. *e*).  
*Ictus* : the metrical accent (358. *a*).  
*Irrational* : not conforming strictly to the unit of time (356, Note).  
*Logædic* : varying in rhythm, making the effect resemble prose (369).  
*Monometer* : consisting of a single measure.  
*Mora* : the unit of time = one short syllable (355. *a*).  
*Pentapody*, *Pentameter* : consisting of five feet, or measures.  
*Penthemimeris* : consisting of five *half-feet*.  
*Protraction* : extension of a syllable beyond its normal length (355. *c*).  
*Resolution* : using two short syllables for one long (357).  
*Strophe* : a series of verses making a recognized metrical whole (*stanza*), which may be indefinitely repeated.  
*Synæresis* : *i* and *u* becoming consonants before a vowel.  
*Synæpheia* : elision between two verses (359. *c*, *R*.).  
*Synxesis* : combining two vowels in one syllable (347. *c*).  
*Syncope* : loss of a short vowel.  
*Systole* : shortening a syllable regularly long.  
*Tetrapody*, *Tetrameter* : consisting of four feet, or measures.  
*Tetrastich* : a system of four verses.  
*Thesis* : the accented part of a foot (358).  
*Tripody*, *Trimeter* : consisting of three feet, or measures.  
*Tristich* : a system of three verses.

## APPENDIX.

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LATIN was originally the language of the plain of Latium, lying south of the Tiber, the first territory occupied and governed by the Romans. This language, together with the Greek, Sanskrit, Zend (Old Persian), the Slavonic and Teutonic families, and the Celtic, are shown by comparative philology to be offshoots of a common stock, a language once spoken by a people somewhere in the interior of Asia, whence the different branches, by successive migrations, peopled Europe and Southern Asia.

The name Indo-European (or Aryan) is given to the whole group of languages, as well as to the original language from which the branches sprang. By an extended comparison of the corresponding roots, stems, and forms, as they appear in the different branches, the original ("Indo-European") root, stem, or form can in very many cases be determined; and this is used as a model, or type, to which the variations may be referred. A few of these forms are given in the grammar for comparison (see, especially, p. 69). A few are here added for further illustration:—

### I. CASE FORMS (Stem VAK, *voice*).

	Indo-Eur.	Sansk.	Greek.	Latin.
SING. Nom.	vāks	vāks	ῥῶς	vox
Gen.	vākas	vāchas	ῥός	vōcis
Dat.	vākai	vāche	ῥή	vōci
Acc.	vākam	vācham	ῥα	vōcem
Abl.	vākat	vāchas	(gen. or dat.)	vōce(d)
Loc.	vāki	vāchi	(dat.)	(dat.)
Instr.	vākā	vāchā	(dat.)	(abl.)
PLUR. Nom.	vākas	vāchas	ῥες	vōces
Gen.	vākām	vāchām	ῥων	vōcum
Dat.	vākbhyams	vāgbhyas	ῥή	vōcibus
Acc.	vākams	vāchas	ῥας	vōces
Abl.	vākbhyams	(as dat.)	(gen. or dat.)	vōcibus
Loc.	vāksvas	vāksu	(dat.)	(dat.)
Instr.	vākbhis	vāgbhis	(dat.)	(abl.)

(For Verb-Forms, see p. 67.)

## 2. CARDINAL NUMBERS.

	Indo-Eur.	Sansk.	Greek.	Latin.
1	?	[eka]	[eɪs]	[unus]
2	dva	dva	δύο	duo
3	tri	tri	τρεις	tres
4	kvatvar	chatur	τέτταρες	quattuor
5	kvankva	panchan	πέντε	quinque
6	ksvaks	shash	ἕξ	sex
7	saptam	saptan	ἑπτά	septem
8	aktam	ashtun	ὀκτώ	octo
9	navam	navan	ἐννέα	novem
10	dakam	dasan	δέκα	decem
12	dvadakam	dva-dasan	δώδεκα	duodecim
13	tridakam	trayo-dasan	τρισκαίδεκα	tredecim
20	dvidakanta	vinsati	εἴκοσι	viginti
30	tridakanta	trinsati	τριάκοντα	triginta
100	kantam	çatam	ἑκατόν	centum

## 3. FAMILIAR AND HOUSEHOLD WORDS.

	Indo-Eur.	Sansk.	Greek.	Latin.
<i>Father.</i>	pātar-	pitri-	πατήρ	pāter
<i>Mother.</i>	mātar-	mātri-	μήτηρ	māter
<i>Father-in-law.</i>	svakura-	çvaçura-	ἐκυρός	socer
<i>Daughter-in-law.</i>	snushā-	snusha-	νύός	nurus
<i>Brother.</i>	bhrātar-	bhrātri-	φράτηρ <sup>1</sup>	frāter
<i>Sister.</i>	svasar- (?)	svasar-	[ἀδελφή]	soror
<i>Master.</i>	pati-	pati-	πόσις	potis
<i>House.</i>	dama-	dama-	δόμος	domus
<i>Seat.</i>	sadas-	sadas-	ἔδος	sedes
<i>Year.</i>	vatas-	vatsa-	ἔτος	vetus ( <i>old</i> )
<i>Field.</i>	agra-	ajra-	ἀγρός	ager
<i>Ox, Cow.</i>	gau-	go-	βοῦς	bos
<i>Sheep (Ewe).</i>	avi-	avi-	ὄvis	ovis
<i>Swine (Sow).</i>	sū-	sū-	ῥίς, σός	sus
<i>Yoke.</i>	yuga-	yuga-	ζυγόν	jugum
<i>Wagon.</i>	rata-	rata-	[ἄμαξα]	rota ( <i>wheel</i> )
<i>Middle.</i>	madhya-	madhya	μέσος	medius
<i>Sweet.</i>	svādu-	svādu-	ἡδύς	suāvis.

The emigrants who peopled the Italian peninsula also divided into several branches, and the language of each branch had its own development, until they were finally crowded out by the dominant Latin. Fragments of some of these dialects have been preserved, in monumental remains, or as cited by Roman antiquarians, though no literature now exists in them; and other fragments were prob-

<sup>1</sup> Clansman.

ably incorporated in that popular or rustic dialect which formed the basis of the modern Italian. The most important of these ancient languages of Italy — not including Etruscan, which was of uncertain origin — were the Oscan of Campania, and the Umbrian of the northern districts. Some of their forms, as compared with the Latin, may be seen in the following : —

Latin.	Oscan.	Umbrian.	Latin.	Oscan.	Umbrian.
accinere		arkane	neque	nep	
alteri (loc.)	alttrei		per	perum	
argento	aragetud		portet		portaia
avibus		aveis	quadrupedibus		peturpursus
censor	censtur		quattuor	petora	petur
censebit	censazet		quinque	pomtis	
contra, F.	contrud, N.		qui, quis	pis	pis
cornicem		curnaco	quid	pid	
dextra		destru	quod	pod	pod
dicere	deicum (cf. venum-do)		cui	piei	
dixerit	dicust		quom		pone, pune
duodecim		desenduf	rectori	regaturei	
extra	ehtrad		siquis		svepis
facito	factud		stet	stai't(stai'et)	
fecerit	fefacust		subvoco		subocau
fertote		fertuta	sum	sum	
fratribus		fratrus	est	i'est	
ibi	ip		sit	set	
imperator	embratur		fuerit	fust	fust
inter	anter	anter	fuerunt	fufans	
liceto	licitud		fuat	fuid	fuia
magistro		mestru	tertium		tertim
medius		mefa	ubi	puf	
mugiatur		mugatu	uterque		puturus pid
multare	moltaum		utrique	puterei	putrespe

Fragments of early Latin are preserved in inscriptions dating back to the third century before the Christian era ; and some Laws are attributed to a much earlier date, — to Romulus (B.C. 750) and Numa (B.C. 700) ; and especially to the Decemvirs (Twelve Tables, B.C. 450) ; but in their present form no authentic dates can be assigned to them. Some of these are usually given in a supplement to the Lexicon. (See also Cic. *De Legibus*, especially ii. 8, iii. 3, 4.)

Latin did not exist as a literary language, in any compositions known to us, until about B.C. 200. At that time it was already strongly influenced by the writings of the Greeks, which were the chief objects of literary study and admiration. The most popular plays, those of Plautus and Terence, were simply translations from

Greek, introducing freely, however, the popular dialect and the slang of the Roman streets. As illustrations of life and manners they belong as much to Athens as to Rome. And the natural growth of a genuine Roman literature seems to have been thus very considerably checked or suppressed. Orations, rhetorical works, letters, and histories, — dealing with the practical affairs and passions of politics, — seem to be nearly all that sprang direct from the native soil. The Latin poets of the Empire were mostly court-poets, writing for a cultivated and luxurious class: satires and epistles alone keep the flavor of Roman manners, and exhibit the familiar features of Italian life.

In its use since the classic period, Latin is known chiefly as the language of the Civil Code, which gave the law to a large part of Europe; as the language of historians, diplomatists, and philosophers during the Middle Age, and in some countries to a much later period; as the official language of the Church and Court of Rome, down to the present day; as, until recently, the common language of scholars, so as still to be the ordinary channel of communication among many learned classes and societies; and as the universal language of Science, especially of the descriptive sciences, so that many hundreds of Latin terms, or derivative forms, must be known familiarly to any one who would have a clear knowledge of the facts of the natural world, or be able to recount them intelligibly to men of science. In some of these uses it may still be regarded as a living language; while, conventionally, it retains its place as the foundation of a liberal education.

During the classical period of the language, Latin existed not only in its literary or urban form, but in several local dialects, known by the collective name of *lingua rustica*, far simpler in their forms of inflection than the classic Latin. This, it is probable, was the basis of modern Italian, which has preserved many of the ancient words without aspirate or case-inflection, as *orto* (*hortus*), *gente* (*gens*). In the colonies longest occupied by the Romans, Latin — often in its ruder and more popular form — grew into the language of the common people. Hence the modern languages called “Romance” or “Romanic”; viz., Italian, Spanish, Portuguese, and French, together with the Catalan of Northeastern Spain, the Provençal or Troubadour language of the South of France, the “Rouman” or Wallachian of the lower Danube (Roumania), and the “Roumansch” of some districts of Switzerland.

A comparison of words in several of these tongues with Latin will serve to illustrate that process of phonetic decay to which reference has been made in the body of this Grammar, as well as

the degree in which the substance of the language has remained unchanged. Thus, in the verb *to be* the general tense-system has been preserved from the Latin in all these languages, together with both of the stems on which it is built, and the personal endings, somewhat abraded, which can be traced throughout. The following exhibit the verb-forms with considerably less alteration than is found in the other Romanic tongues : —

Latin.	Italian.	Spanish.	Portuguese.	French.	Provençal.
sum	sono	soy	sôu	suis	son (sui)
es	sei	eres	és	es	ses (est)
est	è	es	hé	est	es (ez)
sumus	siamo	somos	sômos	sommes	sem (em)
estis	siete	sois	sôis	êtes	etz (es)
sunt	sono	son	saô	sont	sont (son)
eram	era	era	era	étais (STA)	era
eras	eri	eras	eras	étais	eras
erat	era	era	era	était	era
eramus	eravamo	éramos	éramos	étions	eram
eratis	eravate	erais	éreis	étiez	eratz
erant	erano	eran	éraô	étaient	eran
fui	fui	fui	fui	fus	fui
fuisti	fosti	fuiste	fôste	fus	fust
fuit	fù	fuè	fôï	fut	fo (fon)
fuimus	fummo	fuimos	fômos	fûmes	fom
fuistis	foste	fuisteis	fôstos	fûtes	fotz
fuerunt	fúrono	fueron	fôraô	furent	foren
sim	sia	sea	seja	sois	sia
sis	sii	seas	sejas	sois	sias
sit	sia	sea	seja	soit	sia
simus	siamo	seamos	sejâmos	soyons	siam
sitis	siate	seais	sejais	soyez	siatz
sint	siano	sean	séjaô	soient	sian
fuissem	fossi	fuese	fôsse	fusse	fos
fuiesses	fossi	fueses	fôsses	fusses	fosses
fuisset	fosse	fuese	fôsse	fût	fossa (fos)
fuissemus	fóssimo	fuésemos	fôssemos	fussions	fossem
fuissetis	foste	fueseis	fôsseis	fussiez	fossetz
fuisSENT	fóssero	fuesen	fôssem	fussent	fossen
es	sii	se	sê	sois	sias
esto	sia	sea	seja	soit	sia
este	siate	sed	sêde	soyez	siatz
sunto	siano	sean	séjaô	soient	sian
esse	éssere	ser	sêr	être	esser
[sens]	essendo	siendo	sêndo	étant	essent

## PRINCIPAL ROMAN WRITERS.

	B.C.
T. Maccius Plautus, <i>Comedies</i> . . . . .	254-184
Q. Ennius, <i>Annals, Satires, &amp;c.</i> (Fragments) . . . . .	239-169
M. Porcius Cato, <i>Husbandry, Antiquities, &amp;c.</i> . . . .	234-149
M. Pacuvius, <i>Tragedies</i> (Fragments) . . . . .	220-130
P. Terentius Afer (TERENCE), <i>Comedies</i> . . . . .	195-159
C. Lucilius, <i>Satires</i> (Fragments) . . . . .	148-103
L. Attius (or Accius), <i>Tragedies</i> (Fragments) . . . . .	170-75
M. Terentius Varro, <i>Husbandry, Antiquities, &amp;c.</i> . . . .	116-28
M. Tullius Cicero, <i>Orations, Letters, Dialogues</i> . . . . .	106-43
C. Julius Cæsar, <i>Commentaries</i> . . . . .	100-44
T. Lucretius Carus, <i>Poem "De Rerum Natura"</i> . . . . .	95-52
C. Valerius Catullus, <i>Miscellaneous Poems</i> . . . . .	87-47
C. Sallustius Crispus (SALLUST), <i>Histories</i> . . . . .	86-34
Cornelius Nepos, <i>Lives of Famous Commanders</i> . . . . .	
P. Vergilius Maro (VIRGIL), <i>Eclogues, Georgics, Æneid</i> . . . . .	70-19
Q. Horatius Flaccus (HORACE), <i>Satires, Odes, Epistles</i> . . . . .	65-8
Albius Tibullus, <i>Elegies</i> . . . . .	54-18
Sex. Aurelius Propertius, <i>Elegies</i> . . . . .	51-15
T. Livius Patavinus (LIVY), <i>Roman History</i> . . . . .	59-A.D. 17
P. Ovidius Naso (OVID), <i>Metamorphoses, Fasti, &amp;c.</i> . . . .	43-A.D. 18
M. Valerius Maximus, <i>Anecdotes, &amp;c.</i> . . . .	-31
C. Velleius Paterculus, <i>Roman History</i> . . . . .	19-31
Pomponius Mela, <i>Husbandry &amp; Geography</i> . . . . .	-50
A. Persius Flaccus, <i>Satires</i> . . . . .	A.D. 34-62
L. Annæus Seneca, <i>Philos. Letters, &amp;c.; Tragedies</i> . . . . .	-65
M. Annæus Lucanus, <i>Historical Poem "Pharsalia"</i> . . . . .	39-65
Q. Curtius Rufus, <i>History of Alexander</i> . . . . .	?
C. Plinius Secundus (PLINY), <i>Nat. Hist., &amp;c.</i> . . . .	23-79
C. Valerius Flaccus, <i>Heroic Poem "Argonautica"</i> . . . . .	-88
P. Papinius Statius, <i>Heroic Poems "Thebais," &amp;c.</i> . . . .	61-96
C. Silius Italicus, <i>Heroic Poem "Punica"</i> . . . . .	25-100
D. Junius Juvenalis (JUVENAL), <i>Satires</i> . . . . .	40-120
L. Annæus Florus, <i>Historical Abridgment</i> . . . . .	-120
M. Valerius Martialis (MARTIAL), <i>Epigrams</i> . . . . .	43-104
M. Fabius Quintilianus, <i>Rhetoric</i> . . . . .	40-118
C. Cornelius Tacitus, <i>Annals, History, &amp;c.</i> . . . .	60-118
C. Plinius Cæcilius Secundus (PLINY Junior), <i>Letters</i> . . . . .	61-115
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A. Gellius, <i>Miscellanies, "Noctes Atticæ"</i> . . . . .	about-180
† Q. Septimius Florens Tertullianus, <i>Apologist</i> . . . . .	160-240
† M. Minucius Felix, <i>Apologetic Dialogue</i> . . . . .	about-250
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† Aurelius Prudentius Clemens, <i>Christian Poems</i> . . . . .	348-410
† Aurelius Augustinus, <i>Confessions, Discourses, &amp;c.</i> . . . .	354-430
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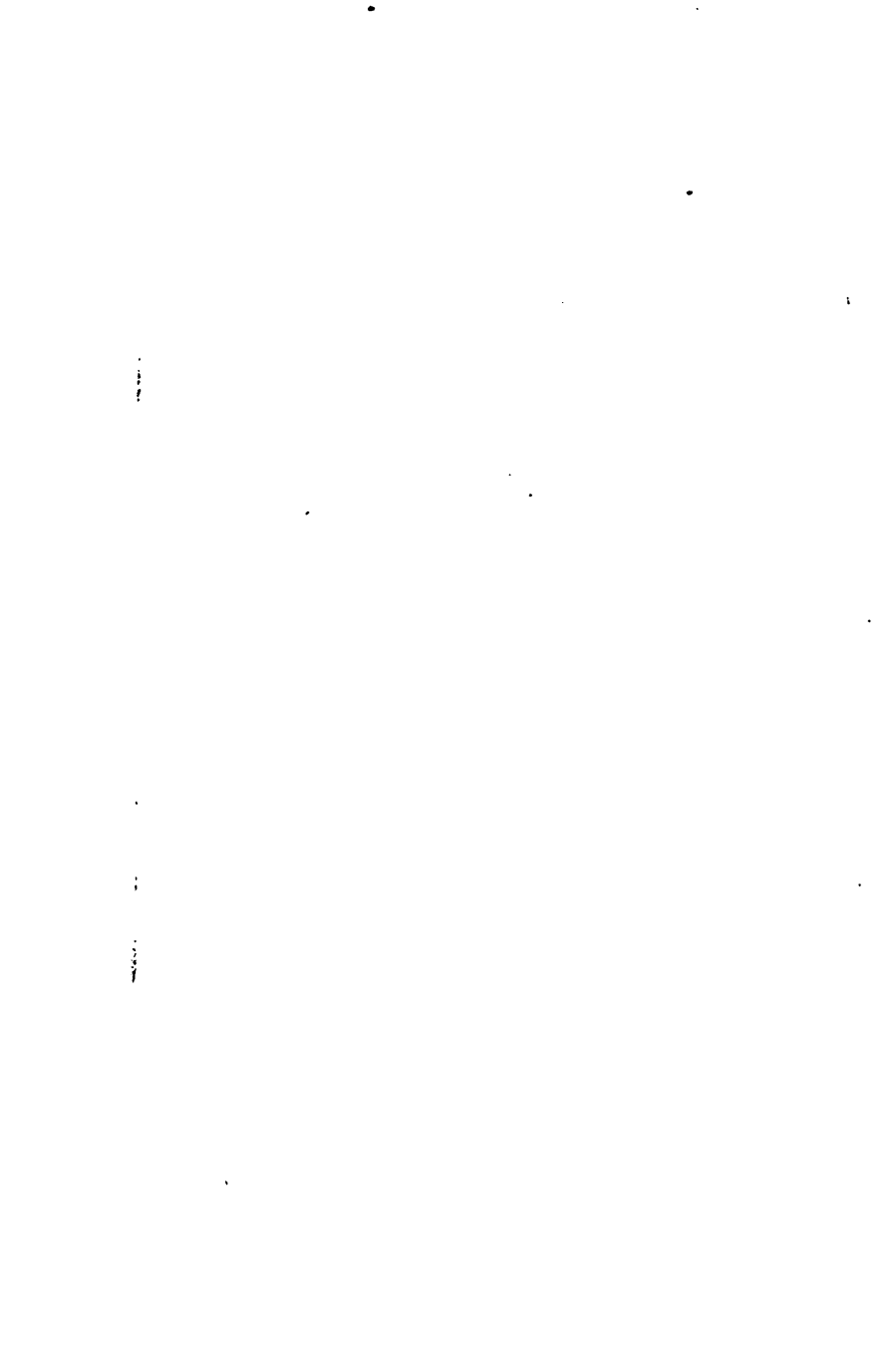
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**W. W. Goodwin, Harvard Coll.:** The idea that any real scholars, who profess to represent modern "scientific" scholarship, can object to the introduction of comparative grammar as far as you have used it in your new Latin Grammar, seems to me too preposterous to be seriously

discussed. Classical philology, like every other science that expects to maintain its position in the nineteenth century, must stand on a scientific basis, and comparative philology supplies the only such basis on which an important part of Latin and Greek Grammar can rest. To reject this basis, and to attempt to build on other foundations which are known to be untrustworthy, is to expose the whole study to merited contempt. It seems to me that you have acted on the same general principle which I followed in preparing my small Greek Grammar, — that of accepting the results of comparative philology where they came within the plan of the work, but of omitting all detail which would merely perplex beginners without aiding them in understanding fundamental principles.

**C. S. Harrington, Prof. of Latin, Middletown Univ.:** It strikes me as being sufficiently full, without being cumbersome (at least nearer the mark than most other grammars that I know), and it is eminently clear and apt in its illustrative examples under rules.

It has been used for the past two years as the regular drill-book for the Freshman Class. It is, in fact, the only Latin Grammar from which lessons are assigned. I shall continue its use. (May 23, 1879.)

**Samuel Hart, Trinity Coll., Ct.:** I am satisfied that it is the best Latin Grammar that I have ever seen. A boy who follows the course of study which it marks out for him will not only lay firm foundations, but also go far towards gaining an ample knowledge of the philology, the history, and the literature of the Latin language. His after-work will not oblige him to unlearn anything that he has been taught, and he will be able to apply general principles to illustrate his later studies.

**L. S. Potwin, Prof. of Latin, Wes. Reserve Coll.:** I have used your Latin Grammar for five years, after having previously used two others in teaching. I consider it decidedly the best grammar before the public for class use. It has the happiest combination I know of, of these four indispensables: *correctness, clearness, brevity, and philosophical arrangement.* (May 2, 1877.)

**M. W. Humphreys, Vanderbilt Univ.:** It is, in my opinion, just the book demanded to meet the wants of American students who would keep pace with the progress now being made in the science of language.

**T. B. Lindsay, Prof. of Latin, Boston Univ.:** I consider it more scientific in arrangement, and more complete in the department of etymology, than any Latin Grammar in use. (May 13, 1879.)

**H. W. Haynes, formerly Prof. of Latin, Univ. of Vt.:** It is one of the most valuable contributions to classical learning this country has produced. I am astonished at the amount and variety of information condensed into such brief space. At first I was fearful that the attempt to apply the scientific methods of comparative philology to an elementary book might make it too abstruse for beginners, though it might furnish a most useful manual for more advanced students. But on examination it does not appear to me more difficult of comprehension than the former school grammars, while in the hands of a skilful teacher it will do much more than impart merely the elements of the Latin language to the youngest students. I rejoice to see the study of Latin at last in the process of being raised to its true position among the sciences, and I congratulate the editors most sincerely upon their success.

**B. W. Arnold, Prof. of Latin, Vanderbilt Univ.:** It is almost a waste of words to speak in complimentary terms of a work which has established so extensive a reputation, and which is so cordially indorsed by the ablest men of the country. (Sept. 28, 1877.)

**Frances E. Lord, Prof. of Latin, Wellesley Coll.:** We find the new edition all that can be desired. I know of no Latin Grammar so well adapted to schools and colleges.

**Helen L. Storke, formerly Prof. of Latin, Wellesley Coll.:** We have used it, as well as the Latin texts accompanying it, with entire success at Wellesley, and I know of no books which I would substitute for these. Their great power in conquering the prejudices of those who have long taught from books on a less scientific basis is one evidence of their value.

**John Avery, Prof. of Latin, Bowdoin Coll.:** I consider it a decided advance on the grammar hitherto used. It embodies the results of the most advanced scholarship on this subject, and presents the facts of the language in a clear and truly scientific manner. (May 16, 1878.)

**Samuel V. Cole, Instructor in Latin, Bowdoin Coll.:** I have used it for several years, both with beginners and with advanced classes, and bear cheerful testimony to its value in my work. The philological notes and the concise and philosophical treatment of the syntax are admirable. The new edition leaves no doubt in my mind that this grammar should be awarded the first place among American grammars. (May 25, 1878.)

**Henry L. Chapman, formerly Prof. of Latin, Bowdoin Coll.:** Clearness, breadth, conciseness, and philo-

sophical method of treatment are so successfully united throughout the work that, in my opinion, it stands unrivalled among American grammars for the preparatory and college courses.

**H. A. Dearborn, Prof. of Latin, Tufts Coll.:** I can heartily recommend it as, in my opinion, one of the best Latin Grammars ever offered to classical teachers and students in our country.

**H. C. Whiting, Prof. of Latin, Dickinson Coll., Pa.:** It commends itself to me, especially by its careful, full, and accurate treatment of Latin etymology, embodying as it does the latest research into the history and development of the language; secondly, by its clear and philosophical statement of some of the most difficult principles of Latin syntax.

**Robert Lowell, Prof. of Latin, Union Coll.:** The arrangement seems to me good; the English true and simple; and explanations ample, short, and intelligent. I like it better than any existing grammar, and better even than I expected.

**Francis Philip Nash, Prof. of Latin, Hobart Coll.:** Of my genuine esteem for it I could give no better proof than the fact that I have introduced it as an alternative book into the preparatory course for admission to this College. I should never think of making such a change without the very strongest reasons.

**W. C. Morey, Prof. of Latin, Rochester Univ.:** The demand made in all the departments of education for broader and more scientific methods of instruction is nowhere more imperative than in the study of the "classics." The present series is the only one within my knowledge which seems to be constructed with reference to this demand.

**Frank Smalley, Prof. of Latin, Syracuse Univ.:** After a careful study of the merits of various Latin Grammars, and after consultation with some whose experience and scholarship make their judgment very valuable, we have adopted for use in the Latin classes in the University the last edition of Allen and Greenough's Latin Grammar. It contains in excellent form the results of the latest researches in respect to the development of forms and constructions, and adds new interest to a subject which, as treated in most grammars, is a collection of forms and rules affording the student no light as to their connection or development. We think it a great advance on any of the other grammars that have been in common use in schools and colleges. It would be very much better for scholarship in our classes if all students entering were well drilled in the grammar they must there use. (*Jan., 1878.*)

**A. G. Hopkins, Prof. of Latin, Hamilton Coll.:** It is very happy, it seems to me, in its adaptations to the wants of the beginner, as well as to the necessities of critical and scholarly investigation.

**E. S. Frisbie, Pres. of Wells Coll.:** I have used the previous edition with every grade of pupils preparing for college, with the most satisfactory results. I know of no grammar to which I would give the preference for beginners or for advanced classes. (*May 27, 1878.*)

**Charles Hinkel, Prof. of Latin, Vassar Coll., N.Y.:** It is an uncommonly clear and comprehensive manual, and comes fully up to the present standard of grammatical science. (*Aug. 29, 1877.*)

**Edward L. Walter, Assistant and Acting Prof. of Latin, Univ. of**

**Mich.:** I had not examined it with any care until quite recently, and though I had expected something quite in advance of anything yet produced by American scholarship, I am even more pleased than I expected to be.

**I. N. Demmon, Univ. of Mich.:** I feel bound to say that I regard it as, on the whole, the best school Latin Grammar before the American public. (May 29, 1879.)

**M. L. D'Ooge, Univ. of Mich.:** The Grammar is throughout abreast with the latest and best scholarship. I am particularly pleased with the clear and systematic treatment of the Syntax, and the presentation of the Prosody. The book deserves the warmest praise. (March 30, 1878.)

**C. S. Richards, Prof. of Latin, Howard Univ., D. C., for thirty-six years Prin. of Kimball Union Acad., N.H.:** I have been greatly pleased with almost every feature of the work,—its clear and scholarly definitions and enunciation of principles, its beautiful typography, and happy adaptation to the recitation-room. I believe that, in its present greatly improved issue, it approximates more nearly to a perfect Latin Grammar than any other now before the public. (Aug. 11, 1877.)

**J. H. Butler, Prof. of Latin, Hillsdale Coll.:** I think it a great improvement over any other Latin Grammar with which I am acquainted. (Jan. 29, 1878.)

**Martin Kellogg, Prof. of Latin, Univ. of Cal.:** I like it very much, and have already recommended it to teachers in High Schools and Academies.

**Winthrop D. Sheldon, Prof. of Latin, Col. Coll.:** I know of no Latin Grammar that so nearly meets the crucial tests which practical scholarship is wont to apply. (May 5, 1877.)

**D. Bonbright, Prof. of Latin, Northwestern Univ.:** It has been used in our preparatory school for four years as the basis of instruction in Latin, and in the university as a manual for reference and comparison. It has stood the test of this use to increasing satisfaction. (May 10, 1878.)

**J. T. Dunklin, Prof. of Latin, Agric. and Mech. Coll. of Ala.:** For class instruction it has, in my opinion, no equal.

**J. D. Crawford, Prof. of Latin, Illinois Industrial Univ.:** The class using the Grammar and Method has advanced very rapidly, accomplishing more work than I have ordinarily seen classes do, and doing it well. I wish that the Grammar might be used in the preparation of students for our classical course, in the schools of the State. (May 10, 1878.)

**Hugh Boyd, Prof. of Latin, Cornell Coll., Iowa:** It has been in use in this college almost from its first publication. The many excellences of the original work, together with the improvements in matter and arrangement made in the last revision, evince the purpose of the author and the publishers to furnish the very best book that the requirements of the present day demand. (May 30, 1878.)

**W. Porter, Prof. of Latin, Beloit Coll.:** We counted its predecessor a good grammar; so good that, after giving it a prolonged trial in the classroom, we retained it, as, upon the whole, together with the series of text-books connected with it, best suited to our wants. (Sept. 19, 1877.)

**Jno. H. Converse, Prof. of Latin, Racine Coll.:** It has been in use in this institution some time, and with increasing favor. I can safely say that it is the best American grammar for school use that has appeared among us. (May 21, 1877.)

**Edwin Post, Prof. of Latin, Indiana Asbury Univ.:** The old book was, in my judgment (formed after long comparative use in class and out with other grammars), decidedly the best working-book for students in the market, and I like the new book still better. (Dec. 12, 1878.)

**H. J. Kiekhoefer, Prof. of Latin, Galesville Univ.:** Of the Latin Grammar and Course, I can only speak in highest terms of commendation. Their test in the class-room, during the present year, has fully convinced me of their superior merits. They have given

complete satisfaction. The student accomplishes more in a shorter time, than by the use of any other text-books of similar pretensions. (May 3, 1877.)

**A. N. Currier, Prof. of Latin, Iowa State Univ.:** It is now certainly *facile princeps* among the Grammars now in use in this country (Sept. 18, 1877.)

**Geo. F. Mull, Prof. of Latin, Mercersburg Coll., Pa.:** For the college student I regard Allen and Greenough's Series as the best produced in this country. (Feb. 1, 1877.)

#### THE LEADING PREPARATORY AND CLASSICAL SCHOOLS ARE EMPHATIC IN ITS FAVOR.

**O. F. P. Bancroft, Prin. of Phillips Acad., Andover:** In the new edition it advances as much upon itself as did the old edition upon its rivals. It has been used in Phillips Academy for four years past. We find it ample in amount, clear in statement and arrangement, suggestive of higher studies in the same field, and easy to cite, — in short, an excellent school grammar. I am sorry any one is disposed to misrepresent Andover in respect to the text-books we use. Allen and Greenough's is our Standard Latin Grammar, the only one we recognize in our catalogue.

**Letter from E. G. Coy, Phillips Acad., Andover, to Prof. C. G. Baldwin of Ripon Coll.:** Since the issue of the new edition of Allen and Greenough's, I can say that there is no doubt that it will be for the present the Grammar of this school; and if it does not prove to be the best grammar for the class-room, as it unquestionably is for the study, I shall be surprised. (April 1, 1878.)

I believe that it is the province of a grammar not only to state, but also to give the rationale of the phenomena of

language; and that that work is the best for the student as it is for the scholar, which follows true science both in its method of treatment, and its exact use of terms. Now the danger in case of manuals for beginners is, that they sacrifice both the scientific method and exactness of statement to supposed expediency. (March 31, '79.)

**Albert C. Perkins, Prin. of Phillips Acad., Exeter:** Simplicity of style, fit illustration, and fulness of treatment do all that can well be done on the pages of a book to make clear the principles of the language. Every page bears evidence of careful scrutiny and ripe scholarship. (Sept. 4, 1877.) I am more than satisfied with our change in introducing Allen and Greenough's Grammar. The more I examine it, the better I am convinced of the great improvement that has been made in it, and of the entire adaptation to our wants. I see nothing more to ask for in it. (Oct. 13, 1877.)

**R. F. Pennell, Phillips Acad., Exeter:** It is well adapted for both class use and reference. I hope that it will be introduced into all our schools preparatory for college. (Aug. 29, 1877.)

**Wm. R. Dimmock, late Prin. of Adams Acad.:** We have had it in use in the Adams Academy since 1872. I have regarded it as the best Latin Grammar for school use published in this country. I consider this new edition as a great improvement upon the former ones.

**J. B. Sewall, Prin. Thayer Acad., Braintree, Mass.:** I shall adopt it for use with the incoming class. (Sept. 7, 1877.)

**Marshall Henshaw, former Prin. of Williston Sem.:** It shows the marks of thorough investigation, clear judgment, nice discrimination, classical taste, logical acumen, and painstaking labor. There can be no doubt that it excels every other American Latin Grammar. Very many, nay, most, of the objections which I entertained towards the former edition, have been removed in this. I shall use it as a school-book in preference to all others. (Sept. 7, 1877.)

**J. M. Whiton, late Prin. of Williston Sem.:** We have used the new edition of Allen and Greenough's Grammar ever since its publication. I remain of the opinion which I expressed then, after carefully examining the book, that it is decidedly the best Latin Grammar for school use now accessible. (April 30, 1878.)

**W. L. Cushing, Prin. Hopkins Gram. Sch., New Haven:** We use Allen and Greenough's Grammar in preference to all others.

**Merrill E. Gates, Prin. Albany Acad.:** The syntax is masterly. The book is complete, without useless detail.

For the past year I have used this Grammar and Leighton's Lessons, and with greater satisfaction than I have

known in the use of any other grammar or book of exercises in Latin.

The longer and more thoroughly we use Goodwin's and Allen and Greenough's, the more deeply we are impressed with their especial and remarkable fitness for the work of a careful preparatory classical school.

**J. I. T. Coolidge, Head-Master St. Mark's School, Southborough, Mass.:** The Grammar, and Leighton's Lessons, have given excellent satisfaction.

**C. M. Parker, Wesleyan Academy, Wilbraham:** It has been in use in this academy for the past four years. From my experience with it in the recitation-room during that time, I take pleasure in commending it. The scholarship secured from its use is more suggestive and independent in its character than that of any other grammar I have ever used.

**Benj. Gill, Wesleyan Acad., Wilbraham:** I think it far ahead of any grammar now published in this country.

**J. L. Morse, Maine Wesleyan Seminary:** I have used it for several years. It appears to me characterized to an unusual degree by accurate scholarship. I know of no school manual that I prefer to it, or from which, in connection with Leighton's Lessons, I can secure better results with my students.

**Wm. E. Thompson, Prof. of Latin, Genesee Wesleyan Seminary, Lima, N.Y.:** To say that I am well pleased with these aids to the study of the Roman classics would not half express the truth. I am delighted with them. I always liked their treatment of the Latin etymology and prosody, and now I can appreciate the way in



which they have presented, so simply and yet so fully, the difficult subject of Latin syntax. (*Dec. 7, 1878.*)

**I. N. Clements**, *Prof. of Latin, Casenovia Sem.*: I believe that no books are superior to these. It is my intention to introduce into my classes the entire series. (*April 7, 1879.*)

**H. F. Flisk**, *Prin. of Prep. School, Northwestern Univ.*: We have used it in our classes more than three years, and with good satisfaction. (*June 1, 1878.*)

**F. W. Baldwin**, *Prin. of Nichols Lat. Sch., Lewiston, Me.*: It seems to me now to be the best Latin Grammar for class use that is published. We have used the old edition for the past three years in preference to any other, but I find many improvements in the new.

**George Stuart**, *Central High School, Phila.*: It is certainly the best Latin Grammar yet published in this country. (*Sept. 5, 1877.*)

**H. T. Fuller**, *Prin. of St. Johnsbury Acad., Vt.*: Use in the class-room confirms me in the opinion of its superior value as a Latin manual for our college preparatory schools. I like particularly—first, its combined com-

pactness and comprehensiveness; secondly, its analysis of the moods, especially that of the subjunctive; and, thirdly, the opening it makes for the study of Comparative Philology.

**C. S. Halsey**, *Prin. of Schenectady Classical Inst.*: Having used it for several years, I have formed a very high opinion of its merits. I consider the work superior to any other Latin Grammar published in this country. (*Sept. 8, 1877.*)

**Hugh Boyd**, *Prof. of Latin, Cornell Coll., Iowa*: The Grammar, and Leighton's Lessons, have been in use during the past year in the junior class of our Preparatory School. No books that we have used have been more satisfactory.

**Oscar Howes**, *Madison Univ.*: It is certainly one of our best school grammars, perhaps on the whole the best for ordinary class use. It is adopted in Colgate Academy, the preparatory school connected with this University.

**Kendall Brooks**, *Kalamasoo Coll.*: We have used in our preparatory department, ever since they were issued, Allen and Greenough's Latin Grammar and Leighton's Latin Lessons, and regard them as superior books.

#### ITS SUCCESS IN HIGH SCHOOLS MAY BE LEARNED FROM THE FOLLOWING LETTERS:—

**Francis A. Waterhouse**, *Prin. High School, Newton, Mass.*: Allen and Greenough's new Latin Grammar is, in my judgment, one of the best manuals published. In one respect it is superior to all others with which I am acquainted,—the treatment of conditional sentences. It is used in our school. I should be very sorry to see it displaced. (*May 18, 1878.*)

**L. G. Jordan**, *Prin. of High School, Lewiston, Me.*: We are now using it in all our classes, and an experience of three years with it has only confirmed my opinion, that it is decidedly the best Latin Grammar in use. The whole series is excellent, and since our adoption of these books I have been much better satisfied with the results secured in the different classes than I ever was before. (*May 11, 1878.*)







